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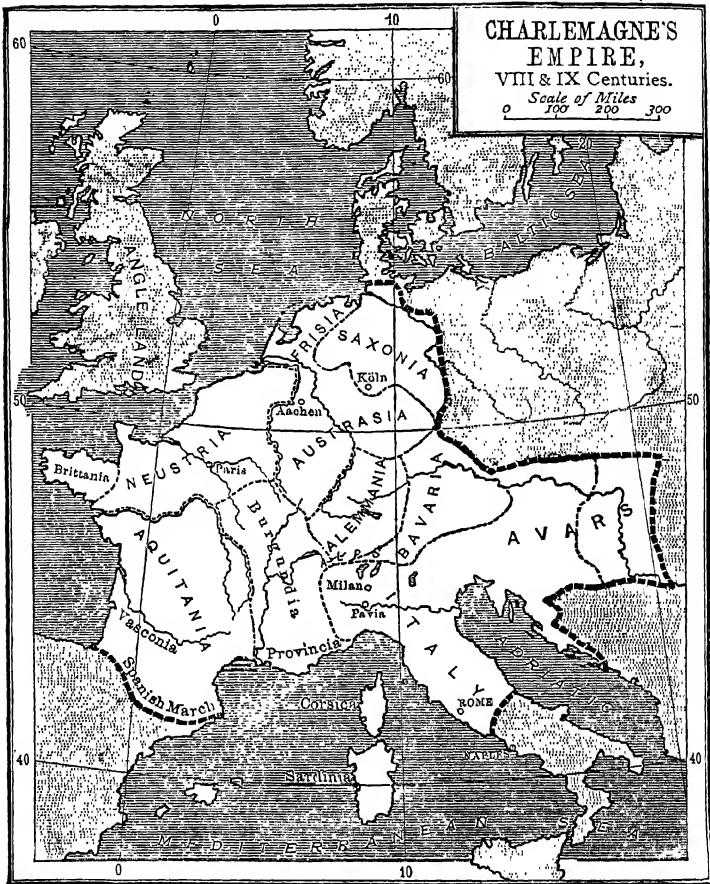
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HISTORY OF GERMANY.

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A SHORT
HISTORY OF GERMANY

BY

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WITH ADDITIONAL CHAPTERS

BY

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PREFACE.

It would be absurd to suppose that a HISTORY OF GERMANY could be written within the compass of 300 pages. The merest outline is all that could be given in this little book, and very much of vast interest and importance has necessarily been omitted.

But some knowledge of the political events of former days is necessary for all persons—more especially travellers—who desire to understand and appreciate the customs, buildings, paintings, etc., of any country, and it is hoped that short continental histories may be useful to many who have not time or opportunity for closer study.

My aim in the present volume has been simply to give one marked characteristic of each King or Emperor's reign, so as to fix it in the memory; and to show how Prussia came to hold its present position of importance amongst the continental powers of Europe.

EMILY HAWTREY.

BOOK I.

HISTORY OF GERMANY.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.

THE mighty Teutonic or German race in Europe did not begin to play its part in history until the decline of the Roman Empire; but we must all of us feel the warmest interest in it when it does begin, for it represents not only the central history of Europe in the Middle Ages, but also the rise of our own forefathers in their home and birthplace of Germany.

To understand something of these ancestors, we must go back to the Origin of Races in the earliest known history of the World.

The Caucasian Race was divided into three branches: Caucasian Race.
I., The Aryan, or Indo-European; II., The Semitic; III., The Hamitic.

The Aryan branch. The races of progress and civil- Aryans.
ization, to which we ourselves belong, include nearly all the nations of Europe: Greeks, Latins, Kelts, Teutons, Slavonians, beside the Asiatic races of Persia and the Hindoos. Our several languages show an affinity with Sanscrit and Zend, the old Hindoo and Persian languages, as if springing from a common stock.

But we know nothing of the Kelts and Teutons until we find them migrating from their Asiatic homes and settling themselves in new habitations in the West. Kelts and Teutons, B.C. 1500 (?).

The Kelts were the first to arrive and take possession of Central Europe, probably as far back as 1500 B.C. (?).

Keltic
Tribes.

After a time the fiercer Teutons poured into Europe, carrying all before them, and pushing the Kelts into the extremities of the Western lands, where we find the Keltic element still existing—in Ireland, Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, Belgium, Brittany and Spain—leaving Central Europe to the Teutons; and the plains of Eastern Europe to the Slavonians, who soon followed (Bulgarians, Avars, and Lithuanians).

The Rhine was the Keltic Border.

Teuton
Tribes.

There were over fifty Germanic or Teutonic Tribes, of whom the chief were:

Goths, of Scandinavia (where Gothland, Godoland, etc., still mark their dwelling-places).

In 200 A.D. they moved southwards, and are found as a powerful nation North of the Danube, subdivided into—

Visigoths (West Goths), of Spain.

Ostrogoths (East Goths), of Moldavia, Wallachia and North Italy. The Goths were the first tribe to receive Christianity.

Vandals and *Burgundii*, kinsmen of the Goths.

Vandals, of Spain (Vandalusia) and North Africa in 439 A.D.

The Dukes of Mecklenburg claim descent from them, and still call themselves "Princes of the Vandals."

Burgundii, settled between the Rhone and the Alps. Switzerland was part of the Burgundian Kingdom.

Suevi, or *Swabians*, of Spain, Gaul and the country known as Swabia.

Alemanni, on the upper course of the Rhine, giving their name to Germany amongst the Franks.

Thuringians, East of the Franks.

Franks (so-called from an ancient word meaning "battle-axe"), of the Lower Rhine, Belgium, and later of Gaul.

Saxons, of Holstein, Denmark, and afterwards of Britain.

Angles, of Schleswig.

Jutes, of Denmark (Jutland).

Marcomanni (Marchmen), first of the Rhine and later of Bohemia.

Lombardii ("Longobardi"), of North Italy since the sixth century, said to have come from Brandenburg.

Scandinavians, or Norsemen, of Norway and Sweden.

Frisians, by the North Sea.

Gepidæ, settled in Hungary, 453 A.D.

Chatti (Catti), from whom the Grand Dukes of Hesse claim lineal descent; said to be absorbed into the Franks in third century.

Cherusci, to the South of Hanover. Hermann, "the Deliverer," was of this tribe.

CHAPTER II.

B.C. 200. THE inhabitants of Germany were ignorant of the art of writing, and we have no records of their own from which to form a correct history. It is to the Romans—their nearest neighbors, inhabiting Italy on the south and Gaul on the west—that we must turn for some account of the “Barbarian Teutons.”

The Romans were a cultivated, clever race, the conquerors of the world, and the centre of historical interest and civilization.

Germans. From their writings we learn that the land to the north of the Danube—lying between the Rhine on the one hand and the Vistula and Carpathian Mountains on the other, and bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea—was inhabited by a fair-haired race of men of gigantic stature, broad shoulders, blue eyes, and keen, fierce looks. The Romans regarded these giant forms with fear, and called them *Wehr-männer* (or warriors), Germans. From childhood upwards the Germans used every possible means to render themselves strong and hardy; even the new-born baby was plunged into cold water. The dress of the men was simply a short linen garment, confined at the waist by a girdle, or a coat made from the skins of wild beasts sewn together; the children ran about unclothed, secure against wind and weather, healthy, active and bold.

Country. The land was rich in vegetation; on all sides stretched vast morasses and pathless forests, in which roamed wild beasts—bison, boars, stags, wolves and bears, etc.; the

air was damp and cold, for the sun's rays could not penetrate the thick foliage of the forests, of which one alone is known to have been sixty days' journey long, and nine days' journey wide.

Agriculture and farming were indeed carried on, but after a very rude and imperfect fashion. The meadows were rich with long grass for pasture, the earth teemed with salt and iron, which the people soon learnt to make use of.

The rivers ran as they do now, but uncrossed by bridges; he who desired to cross must either make a raft or swim! The life was rude and simple. The inhabitants lived in the open air, building no cities or villages, for the confined life of the Roman towns appeared to them only fit for prisoners. Each man had his own little house, the rude walls made of boughs and branches of trees filled up with mud, the roofs thatched with straw, the grander ones made of rough-hewn stones and some painted in streaks of various colors. The favorite occupations for the men were hunting and war; children were trained to the use of weapons from infancy. Houses.

Women also went to war, not so much to fight as to encourage the men; at other times the women were busied with the care of cattle and fields; their food consisted of milk, bread, meat, roots, washed down with clear water, though very soon they learnt to brew a good glass of strong beer! Food.

Certain virtues were conspicuous in their characters. Truth and honor were held in high esteem; a promise or a handclasp could be relied upon with certainty, and to break faith with one another invariably incurred the deepest disgrace. Hospitality also was insisted upon, and the best that could be procured was always set before the stranger. Love of home and "the Fatherland" was a strong point even in those early days. Virtues.

Faults.

At the same time they cared for nothing except hunting and war, and when not occupied with either they lay on mats or played at dice; and to this day it is said of an idler that he is "lying on the bearskin." They carried gambling to such an extent that a man would stake not only his house and property, but also his wife and child, and even himself to be sold as a slave.

Worship.

They worshipped the heathen gods of Nature:

Wodin: the All-Father, who had made the world and from whom twelve other gods emanated.

Donar, or Thor: the god of thundery weather, bringing rain upon the earth.

Hertha: goddess of the earth (earth-mother).

Freya: goddess of love.

The Sun: bringing all the fruits of the earth to maturity.

Hulda: the moon and stars, giving light at night, and with a crowd of little children's souls around her.

Hellia: goddess of the nether world, dwelling in deep darkness.

Etc.

After-life.

They believed in eternal life, in heaven and hell, calling them *Walhalla* and *Hela*. In heaven they believed they should enjoy perpetual tournaments and feasting, drinking mead out of the skulls of their enemies; whatever wounds they received would be healed at night; whatever food they consumed during the day, a fresh supply would be found next morning. The timid or lazy would be sent to hell, where they would always be hungry and yet could never die.

They also believed in elves, who appeared at night; dwarfs, who guarded the treasures of the mountains; nymphs of the woods and waters, household sprites or kobolds, who teased the inhabitants with their tricks, and giants of superhuman size and power.

Their religious ceremonies consisting of prayers and sacrifices were held in the open air, on high hills, or under groves of trees and on banks of sacred streams.

CHAPTER III.

Unity of
ancestry.

ALTHOUGH there were many tribes amongst the Teutons, and some differed widely in their tastes and habits from others, it is to be remembered that they all sprang from one common stock, and that all owned one national language and religion, which caused the strong and lasting desire for oneness of nationality so striking amongst the Germans of the present day.

Division of
classes.

The division of classes was as follows.

The people were all divided into three orders:

- I. *Free-born*: land-owners, who could carry arms, and were allowed to take part in the Councils of the Kingdom, and were bound to defend their country in time of war.
- II. *Freed-men*: farmers on the estates of the land-owners, following their lords to battle, but taking no part in Councils.
- III. *Bondmen*: or serfs, who had no rights of their own, did all the menial work for their masters, and were bought or sold as slaves.

A number of households constituted a Community.

Several Communities constituted a District.

Several Districts constituted a Hundred, or Cent.

Several Hundreds constituted a Province.

The Communities were ruled by Priests.

The Hundreds were ruled by Lords.

The Provinces were ruled by Judges, who were chosen from the most experienced of the Lords, and represented what would now be called "Lord Lieutenants of the County."

A "National Assembly" took place when important War-affairs had to be discussed.

In times of war all the Freed-men were called to battle, and marched out, led by their Priests, carrying banners, and followed by their retainers, armed with swords, spears, wooden shields, long lances, clubs, and stone-axes, which are still to be found buried in the earth on the scene of some of their conflicts. The warriors formed themselves into the shape of a wedge, the more readily to break the ranks of their enemies. Before going into battle, songs were sung in praise of their forefathers, giving an account of their heroic deeds; then the shields were struck ringing together, horns of metal or of bison were blown, and shouting and yelling they rushed to the onslaught. If any man left his shield behind him in the *mêlée* he was disgraced for life, and might never again take part in any religious observance, or in the National Assembly or Councils of the Kingdom.

N.B.—Leaving the shield on the field, a mark of disgrace: Horace's Poem to his friend Pompeius Varus, liber ii., carmen 7.

" Tecum Philippos et celerem fugam
Sensî relictâ non bene parmula,
Cum fracta virtus et minaces
Turpe solum tetigere mento " .

" With thee did I experience the battle at Philippi and swift flight, having shamefully left my shield behind me; when valor itself was broken, and the most threatening touched the disgraceful soil with their chin." Translation.

There is also an allusion to the same fact in 2 Sam. i. 21: "The shield of the mighty vilely cast away".

DECLINE OF ROME, AND RISE OF GERMANY.

CHAPTER IV.

B.C. 113. NORTH GERMANY was the home of two tribes, the Cimbri and the Teutons.

In the year 113 B.C. these two tribes left their dwellings in the North, and travelling South in quest of fresh habitations, appeared before the astonished eyes of the Romans of North Italy, startling them with their uncouth dress, wild manners, and enormous stature.

The Romans sent an army of 80,000 men to drive them back, but they were overcome by the fierce strangers; and very few of the brilliant army returned to Rome to describe the extraordinary courage and daring of their new enemies.

The tribes, however, did not pursue their advantage, but turned aside and marched off through Switzerland towards Gaul. Here they scattered many of the Roman hosts sent out to meet them, and gaining confidence from their successes, they turned back to make another attempt against Italy. Unfortunately for them, differences sprang up between the two tribes, and they separated. The Roman army was under the command of Marius, one of the bravest of brave generals. He lured the Teutons on to the further side of the Rhone, and then engaged them in a terrible conflict. A hundred thousand Teuton corpses lay on the field of battle, and those who escaped death were taken prisoners: amongst

**Marius,
B.C. 102.**

them their king, Teutobod, a man so strong and active **Teutobod.** that he could spring over four horses standing abreast.

Having defeated the Teutons, Marius turned against the Cimbri, and overtook them in the plains near Verona, on the banks of the River Po. Seeing that their **B.C. 101.** case was desperate, the Cimbri tied themselves together with ropes to withstand the charge of the Roman soldiers, but they were cut down, and those who remained standing were dragged down by their companions. The slaughter was complete; and the women, finding all hope was lost, threw themselves on their husbands' swords, or hung themselves on the trees, to avoid falling into the hands of the conquerors.

From this time the Romans tried continually to subjugate Germany.

Julius Cæsar penetrated as far as the Rhine, but could **Julius Cæsar, B.C. 58-55.** not make good his footing. Later on, the Emperor Augustus sent his stepson Drusus against the Germans. **Drusus, A.D. 9.** In his fourth campaign he pushed on to the Elbe, crossed it, and was advancing further when he was met by a German wise-woman, who said to him: "Return, O insatiable man! thy deeds and thy life are at an end!" Drusus was terrified, and turned back. On the way his horse stumbled and fell, throwing him heavily to the ground, and he died from the fall.

On the death of Drusus, the Romans retreated, carrying several prisoners of war with them to Rome. **Hermann, the Deliverer.** Amongst those who had been taken captive to Rome some years previously was a tall, handsome young chief named Hermann, of the tribe of the Cherusci, dwelling on the borderland of the Rhine. He was of a fine, noble disposition, and during his long sojourn in Rome he never forgot that he was a German, with all a German's feelings and affections. After a time he was allowed so return to his country, carrying with him a thorough

knowledge of the Latin language and of the art of war, together with all that was wise and useful in the Roman laws; but in his heart a deeply rooted desire to avenge himself upon his captors, and to rid his cherished country of its oppressors.

His watchful readiness at once took advantage of the first favorable opportunity; and his countrymen were well prepared, having banded themselves together with a vow to rise when called upon by Hermann.

Varus. The Romans had raised fortresses on the Rhine to keep back the Germans, and had placed a governor over them, named Quintellius Varus—a stern, hard man, who strove to force Roman manners and customs upon the unfortunate Teutons, by taking possession of their lands, and trying to crush out their independence and love of liberty.

9 A.D. It was in the year 9 A.D. that Hermann decided that his time was come. One of the tribes made a feint of revolt, and Varus—meaning to march across country to quell the disturbance—asked Hermann to be his guide. Hermann readily accepted the invitation, and led Varus, with his brilliant Roman troops, into the middle of the trackless Teutoberger Forest, where the Romans could only disentangle themselves by cutting down the trees to make some sort of road; but were stopped again by fresh difficulties, and by almost impenetrable marshes, into which baggage, soldiers and followers sank continually. The rain poured down in torrents, and a terrible storm broke over the unfortunate army. In the midst of the confusion, the German Confederates burst upon them, and though fighting desperately all day with the utmost courage, when night came little was left of the flower of the Roman legions; and Varus—wounded and in despair—fell on his own sword and died. Very few fugitives escaped to Rome to tell Augustus Cæsar of the

calamity; when the news was at last brought to him, he fell back against the wall, crying out, "Varus, Varus, give me back my legions!"

Hermann was able to see his long-desired wish for his country carried out, in the establishment of the Teutonic power, and the repulse of the dreaded Roman enemies. His deadly hatred of his oppressors was not diminished by the fact that the Romans had carried off his beautiful wife, Thusnelda, and his son, to be led in triumph to the Capitol. Five years after the death of Varus, they again made an attempt to overcome Hermann, but were defeated. However, the heroic deliverer of his country was not allowed to enjoy his triumph long. His countrymen became jealous of his honors, misconstrued his motives, and finally put him to death at the age of thirty-seven.

A costly monument was erected to his memory, on the top of a mountain in the Teutoberger Forest. The wall called the "Heidenmauer," near the Rhine, was built as a protection against the future assaults of Rome, and traces can be seen of it to the present day.

CHAPTER V.

Decline of
Rome.

As the power and glory of Rome waned, the strength of the Teuton race increased. They grew in numbers and importance, and, finding their former habitations insufficient for their use, they gradually won from the failing hands of the Romans large territories, which presently appear as the possessions of Alemanni, Franks, Saxons, and Goths.

Continual struggles took place between the rival nations. As one Teuton tribe alone would have been unable to force a way into Italy, the principal tribes banded together in a "Völkerverein" or union, to wrest bit by bit from the weakened Empire. Only one or two of these struggles can be mentioned here.

Trajan,
106.

The Emperor Trajan, called "the Just," from his noble qualities, carried on wars against the Dacian Goths in Moldavia, Wallachia, Transylvania (Siebenbürgen), and Asia Minor, which are pictured on "Trajan's Column" in Rome.

Marcus
Aurelius,
169.

The Emperor Marcus Aurelius, "the Philosopher"—who preferred to live the life of a private gentleman to that of a luxurious Emperor, and who personally cared for the wants of the poor—made war towards the close of his life with the Marcomanni, and actually died at Vienna (Vindobona).

Constantine the
Great, 330.

The Emperor Constantine the Great removed the seat of government from Rome to Byzantium, changing its name to Constantinople, and separating the Empire into East and West.

This separation was fatal to the Romans. Internal dissensions arose; attention was called away from the Danube frontier, and the Goths took advantage of it to pour down into Italy in great numbers.

Separation
into
Eastern
and
Western
Empires.

By this time the powerful Gothic Empire extended from the borders of the Danube and the Black Sea to the Baltic, and was composed of the Visigoths or Goths to the west of the Dnieper; the Ostrogoths to the east of the same river, and the Gepidæ to the north-west. They had employed themselves in agricultural pursuits; made rapid advances in arts and sciences; and had accepted the preaching of the Gospel, when the invasions of the Huns came to disturb their prosperity. Hermanric, King of the Goths, a brave-spirited man, would no doubt have successfully resisted them, but he was assassinated by a traitor in his camp, and his Empire seemed to totter at his death. His successor was conquered and put to death. The Ostrogoths for the most part submitted to the enemy; but the Visigoths fled precipitately to the shores of the Danube, and implored the Emperor Valens to allow them to remain on the south side of the river in the plains, which resembled a desert, so much had they been ravaged by perpetual warfare. Their bishop, Ulfilas—who translated the Bible, and invented an alphabet for the German language—promised on their part that they would faithfully defend the frontier of the Empire, and would embrace Arian Christianity; and Valens gave the desired permission to establish themselves in Mæsia, on condition of their serving—when wanted—in the Roman armies.

Gothic
Empire.

376.

In a similar way, when Alaric, King of the Visigoths, revolted against repeated acts of injustice on the part of the Romans, and ravaged the provinces of the Black Sea and the Adriatic, the Emperor Theodosius checked their further inroads by giving them a home in Thrace

Alaric, 379.

under Roman jurisdiction; and during his reign, the Visigoths to the south of the Danube remained tranquil.

395. The alliance between Goths and Romans did not last long. On the death of the Emperor Theodosius, the Empire was divided—Honorius taking the West and Arcadius the East. Rufinus, the minister of Arcadius at Constantinople, took advantage of the confusion to stir up the Visigoths to invade Italy once more.

Honorius. The Western Empire was practically governed by Stilicho, the uncle and minister of the weak boy-Emperor Honorius, who lived at Milan, and spent his time in feeding and taming chickens. His favorite hen was named "Rome," and when messengers came in haste to tell him of the capture of the city by the Goths, all his reply was: "That can't be, for I have just been feeding her."

406-414. Alaric, King of the Goths, appeared with an immense army before Asti, in Piedmont; but he was routed by Stilicho, and forced to retire. The defeat did not save the Empire. By calling into Italy the Roman legions on the frontier to withstand the attack of Alaric, Stilicho left Gaul unprotected; and hordes of Visigoths, Suevi, and Burgundians, crossing the Rhine on the ice, poured into Gaul, established a kingdom at Toulouse, and, pressing on to the Pyrenees, took possession of Spain and Portugal.

410. Meantime Alaric—full of vengeance for his defeat before Asti—returned to Italy, sacked and burnt Rome; and would have proceeded to further violence, when, on his advance into South Italy, he died suddenly of fever, and was buried in the river Busento—the bed of the river being changed, in order that no enemy might ever discover and desecrate his grave.

Gothic
Kingdom
in Spain.

Ataulphus or Adolphus, brother of Alaric, succeeded him, and obtained from Honorius the cession of South-
ern Gaul, where the Gothic kingdom held sway from the

Loire to the Pyrenees. Later they were forced to give way before the power of Clovis, King of the Franks; and crossing the Pyrenees, they set up their transplanted kingdom in Spain, with a capital at Toledo, and held possession of it for 300 years.

CHAPTER VI.

Huns. ANOTHER terrible enemy was advancing against the unfortunate, sinking Empire of Rome.

Beyond the Ural mountains and the Volga, in the wide tablelands of Asia, lived a nomad race of Scythians, called Huns or Calmuck Turks—as a protection against whom the Chinese built their famous wall more than 200 years before Christ. They were a hideous people. Long black locks streamed over their shoulders. Their yellow complexions, thick lips, small eyes, filthy habits, and fierce barbarity seemed hardly human. They seldom left the saddle—eating, drinking, and even sleeping on horseback. Cooking was unknown to them; they ate all their food raw. They would place tough meat on their saddles, and ride it tender. They were clothed in wrappers of cotton cloth, or skins of wild beasts. The dirty women and children were conveyed in carts, and so they went forward on their marauding expeditions from land to land. An old saying is that “no grass grew where Attila’s horse had passed”. Everything was laid waste by fire, sword, and spear.

75. In the fourth century they burst into Europe in search of new dwelling-places, and, like a pack of vultures, alighted in the country known to us as Hungary. But they were speedily off again towards the West, led on by their great chief Etzel, or Attila, calling himself the “Scourge of God.” Cities and villages were set on fire, and the inhabitants murdered as they ruthlessly pursued their way. They first conquered the Alani—a Tar-

Attila.

tar tribe between the Volga and the Don—and pushed on through South Germany into Gaul. The Romans and Visigoths for once combined with the Franks against the common enemy, and a terrific battle took place at Châlons-sur-Marne, in which Attila was con- Châlons, 451. quered, and obliged to flee to Hungary.

The next year he returned, entered Italy, and robbed 452. and spoiled the city of Aquileia, whose inhabitants fled Foundation of Venice. to the shores of the Adriatic, and there laid the foundations of the beautiful city of Venice—"Queen of the Adriatic."

Upper Italy was completely at the mercy of the Huns, who marched on victoriously to the city of Rome. Here Pope Leo I. and his priests in solemn array came out to meet the conquerors, bringing rich presents to Attila, and imploring him to spare the city. He consented and returned to Hungary, promising his soldiers to give them the spoils of Rome on some future occasion; but he died in the following year. His corpse was laid in a coffin of Death of Attila, 453. gold, encased in silver, and enclosed in an outer coffin of iron; the slaves who had prepared his grave by night being immediately slain, that no man might reveal his burial place.

The fall of the Roman Empire was hastened by the Gothic Kingdom in Italy. attacks of Attila and Genseric. The latter was King of the Vandals, and had been invited over from North Africa by the Empress Eudoxia, who was wearied out by the cruel conduct of Maximus, the usurper, with whom she had been obliged to make a forced marriage. The King of the Vandals hurried to Italy with a powerful fleet, and seized Rome, which was given up to all the 455. horrors of pillage for fifteen days; and Genseric returned to Carthage loaded with treasures, and carrying 60,000 prisoners, amongst whom were the Empress Eudoxia herself with her children.

476.

This was the death-blow to the Empire of the West. Only Italy was left of all the former vast dominions of Rome; and even Rome itself was in the hands of federal mercenaries, who raised up or deposed Emperors at will. One of their chiefs, named Odoacer, King of the Heruli, from Lombardy (a tribe so fierce that when no longer fit for battle, the old men allowed themselves to be burnt, and the widows were strangled), demanded that the third part of the whole peninsula should be given up to his use; and on being refused, he deposed the six-year-old Emperor Romulus Augustulus (little Augustus), shut him up in a castle in the Campagna, and was himself proclaimed King of Italy. He was countenanced in that position by the Emperor of the East as a deputy to govern Italy, and reigned till the Ostrogoths invaded the country; when their King Theodoric strangled Odoacer with his own hands, and established the Gothic Kingdom in Italy. This lasted for sixty years, and only yielded to the Lombards, whose power ended in the reign of Charlemagne.

MIGRATION OF THE NATIONS.

CHAPTER VII.

THE invasion of the Huns had disturbed all the tribes of Europe, and a general "Migration of the Nations" (Völkerwanderung) took place, in which the Romans lost province after province. Migration of the Nations, lasting nearly 300 years.

Franks seized Gaul, gave their name to the country.

They were converted to Christianity, 496 A.D.

Visigoths settled in the north of Spain. They were Arian Christians, 369, but abjured the heresy in 585.

Suevi settled in Portugal, became Christians, 369. Absorbed into Visigoths, 584.

Vandals settled in south of Spain (Andalusia) and North Africa, with Carthage for the capital of the Vandal kingdom, founded by Genseric, 449.

Burgundians settled on each side of the Jura. Converted in 516.

Lombards settled in North Italy, succeeded to the kingdom of the Ostrogoths in Italy.

All these kingdoms took the place of the Roman Empire.

The Saxons and Angles took possession of Britain, and changed the name to England. They were converted by Augustine and his companions, 596. (Christianity had been preached in Britain, and churches built at a much earlier date, and Celtic England was already called the Isle of Saints.)

The Magyars—a tribe of Mongols—conquered the Avars, settled themselves in the basin of the Danube, and gradually developed into the noble Hungarian nation. Converted, 1000 A.D.

The Turks or Turcomans, another Mongol tribe, overthrew the Byzantine Empire, and established the Ottoman Empire in Turkey.

KINGDOM OF THE FRANKS.

CHAPTER VIII.

MIDDLE AGES.

THE Franks had taken possession of North Gaul and ^{Franks.} become a very powerful, independent people. They were composed of several tribes, each possessing a chief or king, who was proclaimed by raising him on a shield and carrying him through the camp. Long flowing locks falling over the shoulders was the distinctive sign of royalty. All the other Franks fastened their hair on the top of their heads. The Franks of the Rhine were called "Ripuarian" Franks, from *Ripa*, a bank; those of Gaul, "Salique" Franks, from the Saale, a tributary of the Main.

In the year 481 Clovis (= Clodwig, ancient German; Clovis, 481, Ludwig, modern German; Louis, French), king at fifteen years of age, ruled over Belgium and Upper France, fixing his residence at Paris, and speedily gaining dominion over the whole of France (Frankreich). His wife, Clotilde of Burgundy, was a Christian, and did her best to convert her husband to the faith, but apparently in vain. At length, however, in the year 496 a terrible battle took place at Zülrich between the Franks and the Alemanni of the Black Forest in Switzerland, in which it seemed as if the latter must certainly win the day. Then

Zülrich,
496.

head with one stroke of his sword, and his ambition was unbounded.

Indignant at the weakness of the Merovingian sovereigns, he sent to ask Pope Zacharias: "Which ought to be king—the one who merely bears the title, or the one who really governs?" The answer being given in his favor, Pepin took upon himself to depose the last Frankish king, Childeric III., and to found a new dynasty called the "Carlovingian".

In a struggle with the Lombards of North Italy he became possessed of their territories near Rome, which in gratitude he presented to the Pope; and which were afterwards known as the "Exarchate of Ravenna," or the States of the Church. This gift laid the foundation of the temporal power of the Popes.

Pepin was anointed king in 752 by St. Boniface, known as the "Apostle of the Germans".

Pepin died in 768.

Exarchate
of Ravenna,
or States
of the
Church,
752.

Death of
Pepin,
768.

CHRISTIANITY.

Many efforts had been made to evangelize Germany and Switzerland. The most noted of the teachers were St. Columba from Ireland, and his follower, St. Gall, who settled at Bobbio in North Italy and in Switzerland respectively; also Rupert, who labored on the banks of the Danube, Fridolin of Seckingen, St. Beatus on the shores of the lake of Thun, Kilian at Wartzburg, Willibrod in Frisia, etc. But there was no national Church established until the days of holy St. Boniface. Winifred or Boniface was born at Crediton about 680. He left his home in the west of England to be educated as a preacher at the Benedictine Missionary College of Nhut-

Teaching
the Gospe
to the
Teutons.

Clovis in anguish of spirit uttered a solemn vow: "O Jesus Christ, my wife Clotilde says that Thou art the Son of the Living God, and givest victory to all them that believe in Thee: help me in my extremity and I will forsake my gods, who have failed me, and will serve Thee alone". And, behold! the Alemanni gave way, victory remained with the Franks, and Clovis fulfilled his vow. He sought instruction in the Christian doctrines, and together with 3000 of his followers was baptized. On hearing of the death of our Blessed Lord he exclaimed: "Had I but been there with my Franks I would have avenged the evil that was done to Him". Clovis died in 511, leaving his fine Frankish kingdom to be divided between his four insignificant sons.

Then followed the reign of the "Rois Fainéants," and the gradual yielding up of their power into the hands of the "Maires du Palais," of whom the boldest and most successful were Pepin d'Héristhal and his heroic son Charles Martel (the hammerer).

Pepin
d'Héristhal,
687.]
714.

In Charles Martel's time the Saracens, the Mohammedan conquerors of Arabia, poured into Spain, and were even pushing their way into the south of France. They had already established their kingdom and religion at the point of the sword in North Africa, and now wanted an entrance into Europe. The Visigoths of Spain were overpowered, and the Saracens crossed the Pyrenees to the peril of the Frankish kingdom. But Charles Martel was too strong for them. In the celebrated battle of Tours—one of the great decisive battles of the world—he put the Arabians to flight, and effectually prevented the introduction of their dark Mohammedan faith into Europe.

Tours,
732.

The son of Charles Martel, Pepin le Bref, received the hereditary title of "Maire du Palais". His personal strength was so great that it is said he cut off a lion's

Pepin le
Bref, 741

scelle (Nutshalling, or Nursling) in Hampshire. His education being completed he was entrusted with the conduct of the school of the monastery; and such was his reputation for learning and his talent for imparting knowledge to others, that students from far and near flocked to Nhutscele to enjoy the advantage of his instruction. In the year 717 Abbot Winbercht died, and Winfred was unanimously elected to succeed him.

Filled with missionary zeal, he then solicited the bishop to give him a letter of introduction to the Pope, in order that he might obtain a commission to preach the Gospel to the heathens in North Germany. Having obtained this, he proceeded in 718 to Rome, where he was graciously received by Pope Gregory II., and was granted the commission he desired. In 719 he proceeded to Northern Germany, and prosecuted his missionary labors in Friesland and Thuringia. In 722 he was recalled to Rome, and created a bishop under the name of Bonifacius. In 747 he was created first Archbishop of Mainz, and then Primate of Germany. He preached the Gospel, boldly asserting the worthlessness of the Teutonic gods, openly defying their power and with his own hand cutting down their Sacred Oak of Geismar. His courageous preaching firmly implanted the fear of the True God in the hearts of the German tribes. Besides this, he founded schools, built the first little church from the wood of the Oak of Geismar, taught the people to drain their fields, plough the land, and improve their trades. In his final effort, at the age of seventy, to christianize the Frisians, they turned upon him when in the act of confirming some converts, and murdered him in the year 755. The bodies of Boniface and the clergy martyred with him were brought to Mainz, but that of the former being claimed by the monks of Fulda in Hessen-Cassel, about sixty miles distant—a monastery

719.

755.

which he had founded, and where he had wished to be buried—it was carried thither in great state, and his shrine still exists in the Cathedral of that town; a slab which covered the tomb now rests perpendicularly against the third pier of the nave of the Cathedral of Mainz (Mayence).

CARLOVINGIAN DYNASTY.

CHAPTER IX.

Charle-
magne,
768.

ON the death of Pepin le Bref, his two sons, Karlomann and Charles (known as Charlemagne) divided the crown. In a few years Karlomann died, and Charles reigned alone over a kingdom which, by his conquests over the Teutons and Kelts, he increased till it included Germany, France, Belgium, Switzerland, North Italy and Spain. He suppressed the Saxons under their King Witekind, and subdued the Slavs, Bavarians, and Danes of Jutland; conquered the Lombards of Italy, the Avars of Hungary, a pastoral tribe from Tartary; the Spaniards, Sardinians, Corsicans, Greeks and Arabians. The stories connected with these conquests of Charlemagne, such as "Roncesvalles and Roland," "Haroun al Raschid," "the Empress Irene," etc., read like the highest romance.

Desiderius.

774.

Desiderius, the last King of Lombardy, had received at his Court the sons of Karlomann, and he now desired to place them on the throne of France; but Charlemagne hurried into Lombardy, dethroned and imprisoned Desiderius, and crowned himself with the iron crown of the Lombard kings (said to have been made out of the nails of the Saviour's Cross), thus becoming King of all Italy except Magna Grecia, the independent Greek Colonies of South Italy.

On the eastern boundary of his kingdom, Charle-

magne, having put an end to the Avar Kingdom in Pan-
 nonia, established a Province or Markgraf¹—an “Oes-
 terreich,” from which the name “Austria” is taken—
 and the duty of the Landgraf was to keep his border
 country against the marauding enemies.

Foundation
of Austria.

Charlemagne's fixed idea was to form one vast con-
 solidated Kingdom of the whole of Central Europe.

Feudal
System.

He divided the Empire into Kingdoms, Duchies,² and
 Counties, all subject to the one Imperial head. The
 border counties were called Marches, and the Counts
 Palatine (of the Palace) superintended the Imperial
 estates.

Every now and then at some special epoch in history,
 one grand central figure seems to spring into life, and
 draw all eyes towards it alone as it stands supreme above
 the surrounding nations. So it was with Charlemagne.
 His calm, lofty magnificence, imposing stature and beau-
 tiful countenance are superb in the midst of the surging,
 tumultuous world about him.

Not only did he know how to wield the sword, but he
 also cared for the welfare of his people with a fatherly
 interest.

He erected schools,³ encouraged learning, and fostered
 knowledge in every possible way. At the age of thirty-
 two he himself began to learn the letters of the alphabet
 from Pietro of Pisa, who gave him lessons in grammar
 and Latin, and prepared the way for the further teaching
 of the celebrated Alcuin, director of the Monastic School

¹ Graf, from *Rufen*, to call—a Judge who called criminals to
 account: “Comes,” in Latin, the companion of the Duke:
 “Mark-Graf”=Governor of the March or Border. The title
 “Marchese” comes from Markgraf.

² Duke or Herzog, leader of the host, from *Duco*, I lead
 (Latin).

³ Such as Fulda, Saint Gall, Osnabruck, Lyons, Tours,
 Bologna, Pavia, etc.

at York. Rhetoric, astronomy, and mathematics were amongst the King's favorite studies. He tried to learn writing, but succeeded very imperfectly; and, in truth, it was not of great consequence in those days of few books and much oral instruction. He took great pains to improve sacred music, and sent for organists and singers from Italy; and so eager was he to carry out his reforms that it is said he did not scruple so use violence to compel the clergy to substitute Gregorian chants for the earlier Ambrosian liturgy.

Charlemagne took pleasure in surrounding himself with the clever men of the day. Paul the deacon, secretary to the King of Lombardy, and author of a history of Lombardy, was condemned to have his hands cut off on the defeat of his master, Desiderius; but Charlemagne excused him, saying: "If we cut off his hands, who will write any more delightful histories for us?"

Clement of Ireland; Theodulph, the Gothic Bishop of Orleans; Leidrad, the Bavarian Archbishop of Lyons; the German writers, Angilbert and Eginhard—the latter being Chancellor to the King—formed a sort of academy directed by Alcuin. The king presided—under the name of David—and each member was nicknamed according to his special tastes—Homer, Horace, etc.

With his whole soul Charlemagne devoted himself to his kingdom, and especially to the spread of the Church, founding bishoprics, giving large powers to the clergy, convoking Councils (of which the principal was that of Frankfort in 794, where 300 bishops condemned the adoration of images), building cloisters, monasteries, and churches, his favorite being the circular Church of Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle).

He improved the army, and took a keen interest in architecture, agriculture, and farming, making good

roads, and showing that he understood the commercial value of water by cutting a canal to connect the Rhine and the Danube.

In appearance, Charlemagne was very remarkable—standing seven feet in height with long neck, large, brilliant blue eyes, fair curling hair, and a nobly expressive face. His movements were firm, manly, and dignified, and his manners courteous towards every one. For ordinary wear his dress was simple, but on state occasions truly regal in its magnificence.

Unfortunately, his moral character was not pure. He is stated to have had nine wives; and consequent disorders spoilt the domestic life of his Court, and showed a bad example to the nation.

As warrior, Charlemagne was constantly employed Saxons, in subjecting the many turbulent tribes on all sides. The Saxons were among the most difficult to restrain. Always brave and warlike, determined to maintain their freedom, and with a deeply rooted aversion to Latin civilization, they were formidable adversaries to the new Frankish kingdom. They were also little inclined to listen to the preachings of missionaries supported by Frankish princes; whilst Charlemagne considered it a merit to enforce Christianity at any cost—by force of arms or punishment, if milder means were of no avail.

In one of his first expeditions against the Saxons, 772. Charlemagne took and burnt the fortress of Ehresburg, and destroyed the famous Hermannsäule—the national and religious monument of the Saxons, commemorating the victory of Hermann over the legions of Varus. The deep and almost superstitious fear of the people when they saw their beloved memorial destroyed, caused them to submit; and they consented to be baptized, which was, in Charlemagne's estimation, *the one* sign of obedience and civilization.

Shortly afterwards, however, on a fresh rising of the Saxons, they marched into Austrasia (eastern border country of France, known also as Metz); and upon this, Charlemagne, having subdued them once more, fixed his residence at Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), where he could enjoy the thermal baths, and control his frontier with greater ease.

On another occasion, when the king himself was in Italy putting down a revolution—raised by the Lombards in favor of a son of their dethroned King Desiderius—the Saxons took up arms under their hero, Witekind. He was defeated several times by the troops of Charlemagne, and took refuge with the Danes. His compatriots meanwhile made a show of submission, by way of propitiating their conqueror, and allowed themselves to be baptized, although many of them had submitted to that sacred rite two or three times previously!

Witekind,
772.

The ceremony of baptism was carried out by plunging them into the river by hundreds, and they were then considered Christians, and supposed to be incapable of ever relapsing into their ancient heathenism.

773.

The following year Charlemagne, taking advantage of the apparent peace with the Saxons, marched into the North of Spain to help the Christian kings and some of the Arab emirs against Abderrahman I., the Caliph of Cordova, who threatened to rob them of their possessions. All the country between the Pyrenees and the Ebro submitted to Charlemagne, and was enrolled in the Frankish Kingdom under the name of the "Marches of Spain". But having been defeated at the siege of Saragossa and not supported by the Christian Kings of Portugal and Navarre, Charlemagne did not push his conquests further. On his return, when his army, "like a long steel serpent," was defiling amongst the sharp rocks of the Pyrenees, in the midst of narrow paths and

thick forest growth, the rear-guard separated from the main body and fell into an ambush of Gascon soldiers. Their leader had betrayed the Franks and led them on into the gorges of Roncesvalles. Heavily laden with armor, they could not defend themselves, and were all massacred, together with their chief, Rutland (Roland), Comte de la Marche, nephew of Charlemagne, the hero of many chivalrous songs and romances.

Duke
Lupus.
Ronces-
valles,
778.

Meantime, Witekind the Saxon had returned to his country, and, in Charlemagne's absence, set fire to all the imperial towns and villages as far as the Rhine, but he was beaten back and conquered by the German troops, and the country was then placed under a regular military system of enforced conversion to Christianity, and regular payment of taxes. These taxes were shared between eight abbots and bishops, who held tribunals to find out and punish any persons relapsing into paganism or ancient superstitions. In spite of these precautions, however, the Saxons once more attempted to throw off the yoke of the Franks; they confronted the armies of Charlemagne, only to be massacred to the number of 4500, and their country devastated far and wide. One more desperate struggle ensued, when finally Witekind submitted, offered terms of peace to his conqueror, and was baptized at Attigny-sur-l'Aisne in 785.

Saxons as
Christians.

Charlemagne was not yet free from cares and dangers. The Duke of Bavaria, with the Greeks and Lombards of Benevento, formed an alliance against the Frankish king, and strengthened their forces by taking into their pay barbarian and heathen Slavs. Putting down the insurrection with a high hand, Charlemagne captured the Duke of Bavaria, but spared his life by putting him into the Abbey of Jumiéges as a prisoner for life.

Again beyond Bavaria lay the Marches of Hungary, in which lived the Scythian tribe of Avars, indomitable Avars.

Norsemen who were making constant inroads into Germany or the Greek Empire. Their camp or "Ring" was—like that of the Huns—composed of a vast number of wooden huts, and covered an immense space, within which crimes and lawlessness of all descriptions were carried on without check or hindrance, and hoards of treasure amassed during centuries of pillage. Charlemagne defeated them several times, and conquered the country as far as the Raab; and his son

796.

Coronation,
800.]

Pepin completed their subjection in 796, when he took the chief of the Avars prisoner, forced him to be baptized, and carried off the rich spoils of the famous "Ring". Four years later Pope Leo III. appealed to Charlemagne for assistance against an insurrection which had broken out in Italy. Charlemagne quelled the revolt and punished the offenders. On Christmas Day, as he was taking part in the festival in the Church of St. Peter's in Rome, the Pope suddenly placed on his head the Imperial crown and saluted him as "Cæsar Augustus".

Charlemagne was thenceforth recognized as King of Italy and Emperor of the West, reviving the imperial power in the Holy Roman Empire, and ruling over the whole of Christianity (except the Visigoths in the Asturias and the inhabitants of the British Isles).

Standard.

His banner, with the double-headed eagle to represent the two Empires of Germany and Rome, is still the standard of Germany.

When he found his end approaching, he retired to his town of Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), where he died in 814, and was buried under the dome of the Circular Church. On his tomb are only the words "Carolo Magno".

His last work was a comparison of the Latin and Syriac versions of the Scriptures.

SUCCESSORS OF CHARLEMAGNE.

CHAPTER X.

AFTER his death, Charlemagne's great empire passed to his son Louis le Débonnaire—a good man, but too weak and gentle a prince to hold the vast empire together. So during his lifetime he divided it amongst his three sons Lothaire, Pepin, and Ludwig, sons by his first wife the Empress Irmgarde (Ermengarde); but by another marriage with Jutta, daughter of Welf, Count of Bavaria, he had a fourth son, Charles the Bald (le Chauve); and on expressing a desire to make a rearrangement to benefit this son, the other three rose up in rebellion against their father.

Ludwig the Pious, or Louis le Débonnaire, 814.

At Colmar, in Alsace, the Imperial troops forsook the Emperor, and went over to his sons; and for this act of treachery the place where it happened is still called the "Field of Falsehood".

Colmar.

Louis le Débonnaire died of grief and distress of mind in 840.

A treaty made at Verdun between the degenerate sons decided the share each was to take of their father's possessions.

Treaty of Verdun, 843.

Pepin was already dead, and Lothaire received *Mid-dle Germany*, from the North Sea to the Mediterranean, including the Netherlands, Burgundy, and that part of France known as Lotharingia (Lorraine). This was always a borderland, sometimes attached to the Eastern and sometimes to the Western Empire of Germany.

Lothaire, 840.

Louis the
German,
843.

Ludwig the German took the district on the east bank of the Rhine which represents modern Germany, and which is known as the kingdom of the East Franks (Franconia).

Charles le
Chauve,
875.

Charles the Bald held the western country, called France, also known as the kingdom of the West Franks.

The treaty of Verdun is important, as it finally separated France from Germany. It is the first occasion on which we hear of a document written in the new French language.

But no blessing rested on the brothers. Lothaire, pursued by remorse, laid aside his crown, and retired to a monastery at Trier (Trèves). His successors died out, and his possessions fell partly to France, partly to Germany.

CARLOVINGIAN LINE.

800.—Charlemagne, Emperor of Germany and Italy and King of France.

814.—Ludwig I. or Louis le Débonnaire.

840.—Lothaire I., son; abdicated; died in a monastery at Trèves, 855.

855.—Ludwig or Louis II., the German, son of Louis le Débonnaire. (Ludwig or Louis, son of Lothaire, called Emperor, but merely an empty title.)

875.—Charles II. (le Chauve) the Bald, son of Louis le Débonnaire.

877.—Ludwig or Louis III. (le Bègue), the Stammerer, son of Charles the Bald.

881.—Charles III. (le Gros) the Fat, son of Louis the German.

887.—Arnulf or Arnoul, nephew of Charles III.

899.—Ludwig or Louis (l'Aveugle) the Blind, a nominal reign, captured and blinded by Béranger of Italy.

899.—Ludwig or Louis IV. (l'Enfant) the Child, son of Arnulf, died 911. Last of the Carlovingian race.

SEPARATION OF GERMANY FROM FRANCE.

EXTINCTION OF CHARLEMAGNE'S HOUSE.

The Carlovingian family expired with Ludwig the Child, and from this time the crown of Germany became elective. But it should be remembered that every *King* of Germany did not become an *Emperor*; only those who were crowned by the Pope could claim the title "Imperator".

On the one hand, the Pope assumed supreme spiritual power over the whole empire; whilst on the other, the Emperor claimed distinct authority in temporal matters, both in Italy and Germany. This is the real meaning of the "Holy Roman Empire".

Since the days of the Roman Emperors Italy had never been under the sole government of one ruler. The great cities had their own rights and liberties, and owned no liege lord but the noble at the head of each leading family. Exile meant, to an Italian, expulsion from his own *city*; and the idea of an Italian nation ruled by one head was only realized in this century when the Kingdom of Italy was established.

Meantime, in France the Carlovingian race also died out. The weakness of the kings had allowed the Northmen, or Normans, to devastate their dominions. These bold, hardy people came from the coasts of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark; and they seized—and have ever since retained—the beautiful province of France called by their name.

SAXON DYNASTY.

CHAPTER XI.

11. IN this year the last of Charlemagne's family died in Germany.

Conrad of
Franconia,
911.

The Franks elected Conrad, Duke of Franconia, to succeed to the throne, but his character was unfitted for command; and, although he continued to reign throughout his life-time, when he lay on his death-bed he called for his brother Eberhard, and made him solemnly swear that he would not allow the Germans to place the crown on his head, but would pass it on to his former enemy Heinrich, Duke of Saxony, because he recognized him as the only prince mighty and powerful enough to hold the sceptre worthily. Conrad died, and Eberhard faithfully kept his vow.

Heinrich
I. "the
Fowler,"
or "the
City-
builder,"
918.

Heinrich of Saxony was snaring birds when the messenger arrived bringing him the news of his election to the kingdom of Germany, and from the circumstance he is known as Heinrich the Fowler. He was a wise and able prince. Through his prudent intervention the rival Dukes of Bavaria and Swabia were reconciled to the Franks, and they were all brought into subjection to Heinrich I., whilst a new spirit of friendliness united the different States.

Hungari-
ans and
Wends.

Heinrich's fiercest foes were the Hungarians and Wends, the ancient Slavonic inhabitants of Poland. Year by year bands of these wild tribes burst into Ger-

many, robbing and murdering the peasants, setting fire to their homes, and carrying off their cattle; yet, by the time the Germans had collected their forces against them, the thieves were off with their booty and safely across the border. What to do was a serious question, and Heinrich at last decided to gain time. He made a nine years' truce with the Hungarians, paying them in return a yearly tribute. During these peaceful years he raised a standing army, built several strong cities and fortresses, surrounding them with thick walls and moats to resist the enemy. In these the inhabitants would be safe in time of war. But who was to live in them? The Germans preferred their quiet country homesteads, and exclaimed: "Shall we allow ourselves to be buried alive?—cities and fortresses are no better than prisons!"

Heinrich I. ordered the people to draw lots, and out of every ten families one had to go and live in the city. In this way the towns were filled, and the king tried to make city life pleasant by organizing festivals, arranging markets and fairs, and giving the inhabitants special rights of their own.

He also instituted the order of knighthood, by which a man, bearing a good character under the king, pledged himself to follow his lord to battle, protect the weak, redress grievances, and be faithful to his religion and his country. It is related that when Heinrich was consulting with his barons on the subject, each put forward his view of what was required; and these suggestions became the rules of the new order.

"The knight must tell the truth," said the Duke of Bavaria.

"He must be the protector of women," said the Duke of Swabia.

"He must fight for the Holy Roman Empire," said Conrad, Count Palatine.

"He must do no wrong to the Church," concluded Heinrich I.

Brannybor
or
Branden-
burg
foundation
of Prussia.

Then, being prepared for war, Heinrich turned his attention to the Wends, took possession of their principal city of Brannybor or Brandenburg, and placed a markgraf (border count) over it, to hold the Wends in check. The little strip of land bordering the Elbe which he gave to the markgraf is called the Nordmark (north boundary), and out of this little Nordmark sprang the Duchy of Brandenburg, and eventually the great Kingdom of Prussia!

Merseburg,
933.

The truce with the Hungarians being at an end they once more rushed into Germany, plundering and murdering as usual; but this time Heinrich met them with well-disciplined troops, and so utterly routed them at Merseburg that they abandoned their perpetual incursions for some years.

Death of
Heinrich,
936.

Heinrich died in 936.

CHAPTER XII.

HEINRICH the Fowler having reigned so nobly, the least his countrymen could do to show their gratitude was to elect his son Otto to succeed him. Otto I. the Great
936.

The coronation took place at Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), and the nobles and princes of the various tribes assembled in such numbers that the Palace could scarcely accommodate them. Otto was a fine handsome man, with a kingly manner; and all Germany looked upon him with friendly eyes. As he stepped to the throne a great shout arose, "Long live King Otto!" "Hail to the son of our great Heinrich!"

At the coronation banquet the princes themselves waited upon him.

Duke Eberhard of Franconia held the office of steward or carver.

Duke Hermann of Swabia was cup-bearer.

Duke Giselbert of Lorraine was chamberlain.

Duke Arnulf of Bavaria took charge of the horses and stable, as marshal, etc.

This is the origin of these offices held at the Court by the great princes ever since.

Otto's wife, Queen Edith, sister of Athelstan and Edmund (Eadmund) of England, was crowned at the same time.

Otto I. held the sceptre with a firm grasp, and fought successfully against his foes both in and out of his dominions, and did much for the spread of Christianity.

The Danes, and, later on, the Poles, were forced to acknowledge his sovereignty. The Magyars of Hungary, however, caused him much annoyance by entering Sclavonian
Magyars

Germany in greater numbers than ever. With overwhelming pride they boasted, "Our horses shall drink of our enemies' lakes and rivers; and if the sky were to fall, or the earth cease to exist, still no harm could happen to us!"

Lechfelde,
955.

They advanced upon Augsburg, where Otto met them and gave them such a lesson upon the battlefield of Lechfelde that it was long before the Hungarians dared to show their faces again in Germany. Obligated to remain quiet, they began to take steps towards agriculture and the general improvement of their lands: their Duke (Waivode) Geisa embraced Christianity; and the spread of the true faith under his son Steffan the Pious, did much towards rendering the Hungarians a steady, peaceful people.

Waivode
Geisa,
Steffan the
Pious, 1st
King of
Bohemia,
970.

Poland also became Christian about this time. Otto the Great undertook several wars against Italy, where the abdication of Lothaire II., King of Italy, had left great confusion. He married Lothaire's widow, Adelheid, and was crowned at Milan with the iron crown of Lombardy as King of Italy, and in Rome by the Pope as the Emperor of Rome. His marriage with Adelheid gave Otto a claim to the crown of Italy, and bound the two countries more closely together in the union known as the Holy Roman Empire, which lasted all through the middle ages.

Holy-
Roman
Empire.

Otto died in 973, aged seventy-three.

Successors of Otto I.

Otto II.,
973.
House of
Babenberg.
Otto III.,
983.

Otto II. (the Bloody), in whose reign Austria (the Oesterreich) came into the Frankish House of Babenberg.
Otto III. (the Red), poisoned at the age of twenty-two in Rome.

Heinrich
II., 1002.

Heinrich II. (the Saint, or the Lame), died 1106.

With the death of Heinrich II., the Saxon Dynasty closes.

HOUSE OF FRANCONIA.

CHAPTER XIII.

ON the extinction of the Saxon House, the electors chose Conrad II. (the Salic), Duke of Franconia, as Emperor. He governed well, and firmly suppressed "Fist-right" (the law of might), but was much harassed by the roving bands of robber knights who disturbed the country. His territories were increased by the death of Rodolf III., the last King of Burgundy, who bequeathed his possessions, comprising the beautiful lands of Burgundy, Switzerland, and Southern France, to his nephew, Conrad II., so that we find Burgundy figuring as part of the German Empire, and Conrad conceiving the desire of securing the throne to his own family, and forming an *hereditary* Empire independent of the great lords. This idea was upheld firmly by his son and successor,

Franconian
Dynasty.
Conrad II.,
1024.

Union of
Burgundy
with
Germany.

Heinrich III. (the Black), a powerful, and ambitious prince like his father. He was a zealous supporter of the Church, and instituted the "Truce of God," by which no army was to serve from Saturday to Monday, nor at any times of the Church festivals. But he found all his activity and strength were needed to pacify Italy, and reduce the affairs of the Papacy to some sort of order.

Heinrich
III., 1039.

There were no less than three Popes reigning at Rome at the same time, all recognized by the Church—Benedict IX., Gregory VI., and Sylvester III. The first—elected at the age of ten years—had become an unbri-

Degener-
acy of the
Popes.

1048.

dled tyrant, given up to crime, murder, and excess; and only appeasing the wrath of the people by sharing his palace and revenues with the two other claimants to the Pontificate. To put an end to these scandals, Heinrich III., in right of his authority over the Holy Roman Empire, convoked a Council, deposed the three unworthy priests, and placed in their room a German bishop, Leo IX., whose first act was to crown Heinrich Emperor of Germany. Heinrich elected in the same manner three Popes in succession, all of his own nation, and applied the most vigorous efforts to restore order amongst the clergy.

Ecclesiastical life had degenerated sadly during the centuries of anarchy following the noble Charlemagne's death. The highest positions in the Church (*e.g.*, Abbaties, Bishoprics) were purchased for children of six and eight years old; and whilst waiting for their majority, the parents received the revenues accruing from the benefices. In the monasteries the coarsest and most depraved manners were prevalent.

Heinrich III. and Leo IX. combined to put down "simony," or the traffic of benefices, which had grown to such proportions as to be considered one of the most abundant sources of wealth for the kings of various countries; but in no place were there such crying scandals to be met with as in Rome itself. The Emperor also helped the Pope against the Normans—the powerful and ambitious descendants of Tancred de Hauteville—who finally made a compact with Leo IX., and established themselves in Southern Italy and Sicily; they proved themselves firm supporters of the Papal See, giving the Pope in return a sovereign right over vast territories to which he had in fact no claim.

Under Leo IX. a definite rupture took place between the Patriarch of Constantinople and the Church of

Rome; and from this time the supremacy of the Pope became an incontestable fact in the eyes of the Western nations.

Separation
between
the Patri-
arch and
the Pope.

No one, however, had yet comprehended the possible powers of the Papal See so clearly as did a simple monk named Hildebrand, the son of a carpenter at Savona. in Tuscany. Implicated in the disgrace of Gregory VI., his protector, he retired to the Convent of Cluny, in France, where he became remarkable for the severity of his manners and principles. Leo IX. made his acquaintance when passing through Cluny, on his way to receive the Papal dignity, and persuaded Hildebrand to accompany him to Rome. On the way the monk persuaded Leo that his election, having been made by a temporal prince and not by the clergy, was invalid, and even criminal. So Leo, putting aside his Papal robes, entered Rome with his travelling staff in his hand and bare feet, presenting himself in this guise before the people, for his election to be ratified by them.

Hilde-
brand.

From this time Hildebrand, as the confidant of Leo IX., really became the soul of the Papacy; and in order to raise its power above that of the imperial princes, he had recourse to two principal means:—

1st—The introduction of celibacy in order to reform the clergy; and, Celibacy.

2nd—The establishment of the independence of the clergy, by forbidding them to receive investiture for their benefices from the hands of the laity. Investiture.

As all lands had been subject to the great feudal system, ecclesiastical dignitaries, like other vassals, were bound to receive “investiture” for their domains from the hand of the sovereign or liege lord upon whom their estates depended; and, if necessary, to supply him in return with military aid in time of need.

No one at that period thought it possible to separate

an ecclesiastical function from the rich territorial possessions which were joined to it; and as these could be held only by the ceremony of investiture, the nomination of bishop or abbot became practically dependent on the sovereign or liege lord, and gradually "simony" was openly practised to obtain the envied positions. To overthrow this system was to strike at the root of the entire feudal system, and to seize upon a third or more of the territories of the whole of Europe.

Sacred
College of
Cardinals.

Under Nicholas II., one of the successors of Leo IX., Hildebrand succeeded in obtaining a decree by which the election of the Pope was given into the hands of an electoral body of the clergy called Cardinals, who, on the death of a Pope, were to assemble a conclave, and from amongst their number to elect another Pope to fill the vacancy, quite independent of the Empire and the temporal princes.

1042.

Notwithstanding the busy life led by Heinrich III.—whose conquests, among other military achievements, included that of Bohemia in 1042—he still found time to support with hearty zeal the efforts made by Hildebrand to reform the Papacy,

CHAPTER XIV.

WHEN Heinrich III. died in the prime of manhood, too soon for the welfare of his kingdom, the grief of his subjects was great. His son and successor, Heinrich IV., was only a child of six years old. The Empress Agnes, widow of Heinrich III., acted as regent for her son Heinrich IV. She appointed the Bishop of Augsburg as his tutor; but this angered Archbishop Hanno of Köln (Cologne), who would willingly have been tutor himself; and, aided by his Saxon adherents, he carried off the boy bodily in a crafty manner. His people decoyed Heinrich to the Rhine, where the bishop's barge lay. The prince begged to be "shown over the pretty ship". This was exactly what the Archbishop wanted. As soon as they were on board, he sailed off with him towards Köln; the prince sprang actually into the water in his endeavor to escape, but was again captured and brought to Köln. The mother, full of grief, took refuge in a nunnery in Rome. Hanno treated the prince so severely that he ran away to Archbishop Adalbert of Bremen. If Hanno was too strict, Adalbert was too easy, and between them the boy grew up thoroughly spoilt. Adalbert excited in his heart the deepest hatred against the Saxons, who had taken Hanno's part against him, and this hatred was destined to produce bitter fruits afterwards.

The lords were so much dissatisfied with the state of things that they decided to raise Heinrich to the throne as soon as possible; and the spoilt, petted boy was declared of age and crowned at sixteen.

Heinrich began his reign with capricious and despotic actions, treating his Saxon subjects with special severity. They took up arms in return, destroyed the beautiful castles Heinrich the Fowler had built, and scattered the bones of the kings who had been buried in the "Harzburg". Heinrich came with a large army against them, overthrew them, and brought the Saxon lords before a powerful tribunal, which condemned them as contumacious. The Saxons thereupon complained to the Pope. The Pope was the same powerful and ambitious Hildebrand who—with the consent of Heinrich IV.—had been raised to the Papal throne in 1073, under the title of Gregory VII. But already differences had sprung up between himself and the Emperor. At a Synod assembled in 1075, Gregory VII. called upon all the princes of Europe to give up the right of investiture and simony, under pain of excommunication.

Gregory
VII., 1073.

1075.

Heinrich IV. having refused his consent to this decision of the Pope, and now being brought forward by the Saxons as having treated them cruelly and tyrannically, Gregory VII. summoned him to Rome, to reply to the charges made against him. Not only did Heinrich refuse to comply, but he asserted his right to depose the Pope. Gregory promptly excommunicated him. At this the German lords began to look askance at their sovereign. It did not please them that their Emperor should be in such a humiliating position, and they declared that Heinrich must resign the throne unless the ban was removed within a year.

Heinrich, seeing the Pope strengthened by the assistance of Robert Guiscard and his brave Normans, lost courage at the hopeless idea of attacking him personally, and thought it advisable to seek reconciliation.

Accompanied by his faithful wife, Bertha of Susa, his

friend Frederic von Büren, and only a few of his knights, he started off in mid-winter to make the toilsome journey across the snow-covered Alps into Italy. After a week of painful and difficult travelling, they reached the Castle of Canossa in the Apennines, near Reggio in North Italy. belonging to Matilda, Countess of Tuscany, Heinrich's own cousin, with whom Gregory was staying. At the ¹⁰⁷⁷ entrance of the castle Heinrich's sword and knightly arms were taken from him, and he was clad in the white linen dress of a penitent. For three days the Emperor was kept waiting in the snowy courtyard, in his thin linen dress, with bare head and feet. On the fourth day the Pope allowed the half-starved and frozen Emperor to be summoned, and after exacting some hard stipulations, he readmitted him to the Church.¹

On Heinrich's return home, he found his brother-in-law, Rodolf of Swabia, nominated to fill his place: but certain of the lords, feeling that he had been too hardly used, returned to their allegiance, and with a hastily rallied army Heinrich IV. began a war with Rodolf which lasted three years.

At the battle of Gera in Thuringia, when Rodolf at ^{Gera.} last lay on the field of battle, wounded to death by Godfrey de Bouillon, Duke of Lorraine, a descendant of Charlemagne, he was shown his own right hand, which had been cut off. "I am well punished," he exclaimed, "for raising it against my liege lord".

Heinrich IV. gave the Duchy of Swabia and the hand of his daughter Agnes to his devoted friend, Frederic, ^{Frederic von Büren.} Count von Büren, from whom sprang the illustrious

¹ An obelisk is erected at Harzburg, close to Heinrich IV.'s old castle, on which is inscribed Bismarck's saying, May 14th, 1872: "We do not mean to go to Canossa," referring to the way in which the Emperor Heinrich IV. had been humbled.

house of Hohenstaufen, and whose descendants have been amongst the finest of the German princes.

Siege of
Rome,
1084.

The Emperor never forgave the Pope for the treatment he had received at his hands; and in 1084 he marched into Italy, besieged Rome, and set up an anti-Pope, to the joy of the Italians, who were heartily tired of Gregory's haughty tyranny. Gregory fled to Salerno—the home of the Norman Guiscards—and died the next year in exile, saying with his last breath: "I have loved righteousness and hated iniquity, and therefore I die in exile".

The end of Heinrich's reign was deeply embittered by quarrels with his sons.

1089,
Guelph II.

The Countess Matilda of Tuscany had married, as her second husband, Welf II., Duke of Bavaria; but she separated from him after six years, and turned her interests entirely against the German Empire, encouraging the revolt of the Princes Conrad and Heinrich against their father, and finally granting a deed of gift of all her estates to the Papal See.

1093.

The princes were further instigated to take up arms against the Emperor by Pope Clement III., who again placed Heinrich IV. under the ban of excommunication. The youngest son, Heinrich, went so far as to take his father prisoner, and shut him up at Bingen on the Rhine. The Diet of Mainz (Mayence) required him to abdicate. In vain he threw himself on his knees before his unnatural sons, and besought pity on his grey hairs. He was stripped of his crown and imperial robes, and forced to sign a deed of abdication.

1106.

He escaped from his captors and fled to Lüttich (Liège), where he became lay reader in a church; but to such poverty was he reduced that he was even obliged to sell his boots for bread. He died of a broken heart, and was buried in the cathedral; but so keen was

the Pope's hatred that he caused the body to be disinterred, and for five years—until the expiration of the interdict—it remained in an unconsecrated chapel on a little island in the Maas. It was finally laid with great pomp in the Cathedral of Speier (Spire).

CHAPTER XV.

Heinrich
V., called
the
Parricide,
1106.

IN arming the son against the father, the Pope, no doubt, thought he had succeeded in securing the subjection of Heinrich V.; but his despicable policy turned against himself.

Investiture. As soon as Heinrich found himself securely established on the throne, he firmly refused to give up the rights for which his father had fought. He claimed the right of investing by the ring and the cross, founding it upon the fact that his ancestors for 300 years, since the days of Charlemagne, had all exercised the same rights.

Then he marched into Italy, and demanded that Pope Pascal II. should crown him Emperor. But the Pope would not yield up the question of investiture; and he even went so far as to offer to renounce the claims of his bishops to their lands and feudal rights, on condition that Heinrich would, in his turn, consent to abandon investiture. Heinrich consented; but the bishops were furious, and vehemently opposed the whole arrangement, which would entirely deprive them of the luxuries and importance which they had so long enjoyed. At length the Emperor cut short the business by carrying off the Pope in person, in spite of the resistance of the Roman people; he insisted on retaining the rights of investiture, and forced the Pope to crown him in 1114.

1114.

The matter did not, however, end there. At the next Synod the Pope declared that only force had com-

pelled him to accede to the Emperor's demands, which were against his conscience, and that he annulled all promises extorted from him by Heinrich V.

At the same time the Saxons and other German nobles rose in revolt against the Emperor, and civil war once more desolated the country.

In 1115 the Countess Matilda of Tuscany died, leaving her estates to the Pope, to the prejudice of her natural heirs; but Heinrich V., considering her as a vassal of the Empire, was most indignant, and in revenge and to assert his superiority he took possession of Rome and drove out Pascal II., who took refuge with the Normans in South Italy.

After some years of fighting and quarrelling, the contending parties at last agreed to settle their differences at a Concordat at Worms, when Heinrich V. ended the vexed question of investiture by abandoning to the then reigning Pope, Calixtus II., the right to bestow the ring and the staff and to nominate to benefices, whilst he retained his control as Emperor over all *landed* territories. Concordat
of Worms,
1122.

By this agreement he conceded to the Church the right of *election* and *consecration*, with only one condition—*viz.*, that some of his emissaries should be present at the ceremony: but as the latter were allowed no power of preventing such an election, the Emperor had virtually exchanged his ancient right of *nomination* for a simple form of *affirmation*. First
Lateran
Council,
1123.

The Church, in making the exchange, practically gained everything; the temporal power was vanquished, and the great scheme of Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) was achieved.

Heinrich V.'s example did not, however, induce the other sovereigns of Europe to concede their rights in the same way.

One of those who refused was his father-in-law,

Empress
Maud or
Matilda.

Henry I. of England, whose daughter Maud married first Heinrich V., and after his death Geoffroi, Count of Anjou.

1125.

It is said that Heinrich V. left his palace late one night and was never heard of again; but at any rate he left no children to succeed him, and his estates passed away to his two nephews, Frederic and Conrad of Hohenstaufen.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE Concordat of Worms had put an end to the quarrel about investiture; but the will of the celebrated Matilda, Countess of Tuscany, became the cause of interminable disputes between the Papal See and the Empire. Lothaire II., 1125.

On the death of Heinrich V., his nephew, Frederic von Hohenstaufen, Duke of Swabia, presented himself as a candidate for the throne; but, at the instigation of the clerical party, Lothaire, Duke of Saxony, was elected as Lothaire II.

In order to secure his own position on the throne, the new Emperor commanded the Dukes Frederic and Conrad to give up the lands lately bequeathed to them by their uncle, Heinrich V. This they refused to do, and desolating wars ensued for many years.

Lothaire II. had recourse to a device for humbling his rival which turned out to be the cause of a hundred years of strife and bloodshed. By giving his daughter in marriage to Heinrich the Proud, the Guelphic Duke of Bavaria, Saxony and Brunswick, he withdrew the support of this powerful prince from Frederic of Hohenstaufen. Besides this, he added the vast dominions of his son-in-law and the rich territories of the Countess Matilda, already received from Pope Innocent II., to the imperial domains, so that his rule now extended from the Tiber to the Elbe.

Then began the cruel wars between the Welfs

(Guelphs), friends of the Pope, and the Waiblingers (Ghibellines) of Hohenstaufen, the imperial partisans. The name of Waiblinger is taken from an estate.

1137.

After two years of warfare and two expeditions into Italy, Lothaire died suddenly in Tyrol, in the year 1137.

HOHENSTAUFEN OR SWABIAN LINE.

CHAPTER XVII.

FREDERIC VON BÜREN—the knight who accompanied Heinrich IV. to Canossa, and afterwards married his daughter Agnes—had built himself a castle on a conical hill over the Neckar, and styled himself “von Hohenstaufen”. His son, Conrad III., was elected first Emperor of the Hohenstaufens. (It is to be observed that the first Emperors of three lines—Saxon, Franconian, and Swabian—were each named “Conrad”.)

On the death of Lothaire, his father-in-law Heinrich the Proud of Bavaria believed himself so certain of the Empire that he seized the crown jewels. But the Germans feared his overweening ambition, and elected Conrad III., von Hohenstaufen of Swabia, nephew of Heinrich V. (but he was never crowned Emperor). One of Conrad's first acts was to summon his rival to give up one of his two duchies, Bavaria or Saxony. On his refusing to comply, Conrad declared Henry the Proud an outlaw, and confiscated his estates—giving Bavaria to Leopold, Markgraf of Austria, and Saxony to Albert the Bear, leaving only Brunswick to Heinrich the Proud. However, on the death of Heinrich, the Saxons rose in favor of his young son, Heinrich the Lion, and the Emperor conceded to him the Duchy of Saxony for his lifetime.¹

¹ The dominions of Heinrich the Lion in Saxony and Bavaria were curtailed by the cession of the Duchies of Brandenburg and Austria to the Emperor, who made them fiefs of the Empire, and thus laid the foundation of the afterwards independent monarchies of Prussia and Austria.

Conrad
III., 1138.

Wars
between
Houses of
Welf and
Hohen-
staufen, or
Guelphs-
and Ghib-
ellines.

In Bavaria, Welf, brother of Heinrich the Proud, trying to defend the duchy from falling into the hands of his enemy, successfully repulsed the attacks of Leopold, Markgraf of Austria, but was himself totally defeated
Weinsberg. by the Emperor Conrad at the battle of Weinsberg. It was in this battle that the names of "Guelph" and "Ghibelline" served for the first time as rallying cries for either party. The story goes that upon the surrender of the city, Conrad gave permission to all the women to leave the place, taking with them as much property as each could carry. The gates opened, and a strange procession came out—each woman carrying her husband on her back. The Ghibellines wished to prevent their prisoners from escaping thus; but Conrad would not allow any molestation, and called the castle hill "Weiber-treue" (woman's faithfulness).

1147. Conrad III. took part in the second crusade, preached by the holy Bernard, Abbot of Clairvaux. The Crusaders were defeated, and Conrad returned home; but died very shortly afterwards, nominating as his successor his nephew, Frederic of Swabia (Hohenstaufen), who
1152. was unanimously elected at Frankfort.

CHAPTER XVIII.

FREDERIC I.—surnamed by the Italians Barbarossa, Frederic Barbarossa, 1152 on account of his red beard—was a brave, proud man. It was long since Germany had had so powerful and determined a man on the throne. Thoughtful in drawing up his plans, impetuous in carrying them out, with an iron will that would brook no opposition, and cruel and violent when his passions were roused, he set himself to raise Germany from the low position into which it had sunk under his predecessors, and to render it once more one of the dominant continental powers. He considered himself superior to any other European sovereign; and one of the first acts of his reign was to compel the Kings of Denmark and Poland to do homage to him. He conferred the title of king on Ladislas of Bohemia, and restored the former supremacy of the Empire over the kingdom of Burgundy. He desired, of course, to establish a footing on the south of the Alps, and for this purpose he undertook six campaigns in Italy. But in order to assure the tranquillity of Germany in his absence, he re-established his cousin and friend, Henry the Lion, in possession of Bavaria as well as Saxony; and promised to give Tuscany to the old blind Welf, brother of Heinrich the Proud. The latter had been living most extravagantly on his estates in Swabia, his debts being paid by the Emperor—his nephew, Heinrich the Lion, refusing to have anything to do with his spendthrift uncle. This laid the foundation of the quarrel between Heinrich and the Emperor at a later period; as Heinrich

never forgave his uncle Welf for leaving his possessions on his deathbed to Barbarossa, out of gratitude for what had been done for him.

First
Campaign,
1154.
First
Siege of
Milan.

Frederic's first campaign in Italy began in 1154. The city of Milan was at the head of a league to oppose Germany; so Frederic marched against it, ravaged the country, and besieged Tortona, which only succumbed after sixty-two days of desperate fighting. After crowning himself at Pavia with the iron crown of Lombardy, Frederic pursued his way to Rome, where he was well received by Pope Adrian IV. But his cruel disposition showed itself in his delivering up the reformer, Arnold of Brescia, to be murdered by the Pope, who caused him to be burnt to death, and scattered his bones in the Tiber. Frederic consented, after some reluctance, to kiss the Pope's foot, and in return was crowned Emperor in St. Peter's. Fever broke out, however, amongst his followers, and Frederic returned almost alone to Germany.

Arnold of
Brescia,
1155.

During the three years that he was detained in Germany, his party in Italy turned against him. Adrian IV. betrayed his interests, giving out that he only considered the imperial crown as a benefice to be conferred by the generosity of the Papal See. At the same time, the Milanese, braving the anger of Barbarossa, set about rebuilding Tortona—even the nobles and the merchants taking their turns as masons and soldiers, so that in a few weeks fresh houses and walls were constructed as a sufficient defence against future attacks. Frederic re-entered Italy, and a second siege was laid to Milan in 1158, when the Milanese were forced by famine and pestilence to yield to the Emperor the regal rights of coining money, levying contributions, and exacting custom-house duties, etc. Frederic then, with the consent of the Diet, introduced into each town a "podestà" or magistrate, charged to administer justice in his name.

Second
Campaign,
1158.
Second
Siege of
Milan.

It was this arrangement of Frederic's, to replace their own consuls by officers in the pay of the crown, which roused the Milanese to take up arms against him once more. In revenge the imperial troops ravaged their country and burned their crops, but were not sufficiently strong in numbers to force an entrance into the city. During this time, Adrian IV. (the English Nicholas Breakspear) died, and was succeeded by Pope Alexander III., a pronounced enemy of Barbarossa, who excommunicated Frederic, and released the Italians from their oath of fidelity.

With a new army from Germany, Barbarossa laid siege to Milan in 1162, declaring that his crown was worthless to him as long as this contumacious city resisted him. The inhabitants—surrendering by force of want of supplies—begged for pardon from the Emperor in the dress of penitents, with bare feet, ropes round their necks, and a crucifix in their hands; they even gave up their celebrated “Caroccio,” a crimson chariot drawn by oxen, and surmounted by the image of their patron saint, St. Ambrose, and the banner of the city. They were ordered to quit the town, when the largest and most beautiful part of the city was entirely destroyed, strewn with salt, and ploughed over as waste land.

Exasperated by the cruelty and violence of the imperial rule, the cities of Verona, Vicenza, Padua and Treviso, joined by Venice, Pisa and Genoa, and protected by the former Ghibelline partisans of Barbarossa, entered into an alliance of defence called the “League of Lombardy”. The confederated cities rebuilt Milan, and soon increased their number to fifteen important towns.

Alexander III. held with the rebellious cities, calling himself the “Propagator of Italian Liberty,” and Frederic in wrath marched against Rome, deposed him, and

Third
Campaign,
1162.
Third
Siege of
Milan.

League of
Lombardy,
1167.

Fourth
Campaign,
1168.

set up an anti-Pope; but disease spread amongst his troops, and he was forced to leave Rome without bringing matters to a conclusion. The following year, finding it impossible to resist the Lombard cities, he escaped from Italy by Susa and the ravines of Savoy, disguised as a valet and accompanied only by thirty men-at-arms.

From this moment everything prospered with the League of Lombardy; and during the six years that ensued, had Italy been able to organize a federal republic, or to form a constitutional government, she might have remained free, with power to resist foreign conquerors. But nothing of the sort was attempted, and the League remained incomplete.

Fifth
Campaign,
1174.

At last, in the year 1174, the Emperor reappeared in Italy at the head of another army, and accompanied by Henry the Lion. He marched at once to the siege of Alessandria, a town so named in honor of the Pope, and erected by the Lombard cities as a protection against the imperial allies, the Marquis of Monteferrato and the inhabitants of Pavia. The walls, hastily constructed of mud and straw, were derided by the German soldiers, who called it "Alessandria of straw". But the intrepidity of the Italians rendered the city of huts impregnable, and Frederic gave up the siege in the spring, before the advance of the troops of the League.

Henry the Lion, Duke of Saxony and Bavaria, had all this time been nourishing designs against his imperial friend and benefactor; and now—thinking that a good opportunity had occurred to seize the throne during Frederic's absence from Germany—he excused himself from going farther South into Italy with the army. In vain the Emperor went so far in his entreaties as to throw himself upon his knees before his cousin, making appeals to his sense of honor, generosity and gratitude. The Guelph remained inflexible, and returned to Germany.

The Milanese with renewed energy assembled to encounter Frederic near Legnano. Transported with enthusiasm, the young nobles had raised two squadrons of cavalry, naming them the "Cohort of Death" and the "Cohort of the Caroccio," and pledging themselves to certain death, rather than to let the standard fall into the hands of the enemy.

Sixth
Campaign.
Legnano,
1176.

The shock of the first charge was terrible, and at first the Milanese wavered; but the "Cohort of Death" rallied and returned to the charge, shouting aloud as a war cry their vows for their country. The imperial eagle was overturned, the Emperor himself fell from his horse and disappeared, and his whole army was dispersed. For two days Frederic was supposed to be dead; and when he reappeared at Pavia he found the Empress Beatrice of Burgundy already clad in widow's weeds. Such a humiliating defeat, after twenty-two years of warfare—the loss of seven armies, and the death of half a million of soldiers—made it useless to continue the struggle. Frederic made overtures of peace to the Pope, and a truce was concluded between them at Venice, where the Emperor prostrated himself, and kissed the feet of the Pope, receiving in return the kiss of peace and the removal of the ban of excommunication.

A definite treaty was signed at Constance in 1183. The Italian cities recognized the supremacy of the Emperor, and renewed their oaths of fidelity for ten years; but they recovered their regal rights which had been forfeited to Frederic years before at Milan. The Pope also allowed Frederic to hold the estates of the Countess Matilda for fifteen years.

Treaty of
Constance.

On Frederic's arrival in Germany, Henry the Lion was summoned before him to answer for his treachery, but he refused to appear. Frederic then seized his possessions in Saxony and Bavaria, declared Henry an

1180.

outlaw, took away the ducal title, and bestowed all his estates in Bavaria on Otto von Wittelsbach, the ancestor of the present reigning House of Bavaria. Saxony was given to Bernard Ascanius. Nothing was left to the Guelphs but the territory of Brunswick; and it is through this House of Brunswick that the King of England is descended from the ancient (Guelphs) Welfs.

Meanwhile, Frederic did not lose sight of his wish to strengthen himself in Italy, so he contrived a marriage between his son Heinrich and Constanza the Nun—the heiress of the Two Sicilies, a Norman princess of the Hauteville family. The Pope was furious at the breaking of her vows, and as a sort of expiation the Emperor offered to take part in the coming crusade.

Third
Crusade.
1186.

In 1186 news came to Europe that Jerusalem had fallen into the hands of the Saracen Saladin, owing to the incompetency of the Christian kings; and Europe was once more roused to undertake a crusade to deliver the Holy City from the hands of the unbelievers. Frederic rejoiced to be in the position of champion of the Church, gave up his disputes over Sicily, was reconciled to the Pope, and started for the East on the same unfortunate track that had been taken by his uncle, Conrad III. Arrived in Asia Minor, he defeated a large Turkish force sent out against him, and with his victorious army found himself on the banks of the river Caph¹ (Cydnus). Impatient to cross, he plunged in, but the current proved too strong for his horse to resist. Animal and rider both sank within sight of his own troops, whose grief was indescribable. Some say that Frederic's body was recovered, and that he was buried at Tyre.

His son, Heinrich VI., conducted the army to the siege of Ptolemais, and joined the Christian forces there under Philippe Auguste of France, Richard Cœur de Lion of

¹ Or "Saleph".

England, and Leopold V., Duke of Austria; but again the Turks gained the day, and once more strengthened their footing in Palestine, and Heinrich VI. gave up the attempt and returned home. It was in this reign that Richard I. was captured by Leopold, Duke of Austria. He was compelled to give him up to the Emperor; and Richard was kept a prisoner for two years, and then ransomed at a cost of £400,000.

The Germans would not believe that their mighty Emperor was dead. Even now he is said to be seated in the interior of the "Kyffhäuser" mountains, with his beard grown through the table; and the legend says: "Whenever the raven ceases to fly to the mountain, Frederic Barbarossa will come back to take up his kingdom again". The people firmly believe that at some crisis in the history of the Fatherland, the great Emperor will reappear as their deliverer.

CHAPTER XIX.

Heinrich
VI., 1190.

THE few years of Heinrich VI.'s reign were fully occupied in recovering the possessions of his wife, Constanza (the Nun), from the hands of her two relatives, Count Tancred, grandson of King Roger, and William III., his son, who had taken possession of the two Sicilies, and were supported by all the leading families of the kingdoms. In two expeditions—the costs of which were partly defrayed by the ransom extorted from Richard Cœur de Lion, King of England—Heinrich VI. made himself master of these countries. Such an easy conquest might have appeased the wrath of the Emperor against the Normans, but, on the contrary, he treated them with the most barbarous cruelty, putting out the eyes of his young prisoner, William, and exhuming the body of Tancred to have his head cut off by the executioner. He then carried off the treasures of the old Norman kings, together with 160 mule-loads of gold, silver, and precious stones; and when the Sicilians once more revolted against his tyranny, he marched against them, seized their leader, Count Jordano, and had him put to death with horrible tortures before his own eyes, that he might enjoy the sight of his sufferings.

Left master, by sheer terror, of a kingdom which had before now proved fatal to his dynasty, Heinrich VI. endeavored to strengthen his position in Italy by giving to his brother, Philip of Swabia, the inheritance of Countess Matilda; whilst he himself prepared the Sicil-

ian fleet to undertake the conquest of the East. But his sudden death (some say by poison at the hand of his wife, Constanza, to avenge the miseries of her compatriots) put an end to the attempt.

He left a little son of only three years old, who had 1197 already been proclaimed King of the Romans.

CHAPTER XX.

THE Papal throne was occupied at this juncture by the cleverest of all the priests who had worn the triple crown. Young, handsome, and eloquent, full of confidence in the sanctity of his office, Innocent III. realized more completely than any of his predecessors the accomplishment of the vast schemes of Gregory VII., so that his pontificate marks the complete triumph of the Papal See. He overthrew at once all idea of a republican government in Rome, reasserted his authority over the lands of the Countess Matilda, and organized a league amongst the cities of Tuscany, of which he declared himself the patron. He then accepted the guardianship of the child, Frederic II., from the hands of his dying mother, Constanza, faithfully promising her to look after the boy's interests, and secure to him the possession of the Empire of the Two Sicilies as soon as he should be of age to hold them.

Frederic
II., 1197.

Philip of
Swabia,
1198.

Meantime, many of the German princes had elected Philip, Duke of Swabia, to fill his brother's place; others had chosen Otto of Brunswick, second son of the famous Guelphic chief, Henry the Lion. After some hesitation, the Pope took the part of Philip, forcing him at the same time to make some concessions advantageous to the Papacy.

Otto IV. of
Brunswick
(the
Superb),
1208.

Suddenly, however, Philip was assassinated by the Count Palatine of Bavaria, to whom he had refused to give his daughter in marriage, and Otto of Brunswick

was generally accepted as Emperor; the more willingly as he had allied himself by marriage to the Hohenstaufens, by marrying the daughter of the murdered Philip of Swabia.

The chief of the Guelphs, now without a rival, desired to be crowned in Rome, and for this purpose he entered Italy amidst the joyous acclamations of the people, and was met by the Pope himself, and by deputations from the Lombard League, bearing the golden keys and shields embossed with the coats of arms of their cities, all seeming to imagine that complete unity was at last to be established between the Empire and the Papacy. But the Emperors considered themselves masters of Italy by virtue of their title, and thought that only feudal investiture could be given up to the Pope, and certainly not any gifts of lands which could effect a dismemberment of the Empire, whose rights were inalienable. Therefore, once safely crowned, Otto absolutely refused to give up to the Pope the inheritance of the Countess Matilda. He chased the pontifical troops out of the marches of Ancona, and assigned a day for the young Frederic to come and receive from his hands the investiture of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

At this totally unexpected proceeding Innocent's wrath burst forth. He launched a Papal Bull against Otto, deposed him, and sent legates to Germany to proclaim his pupil, Frederic—then a boy of eighteen years of age, nicknamed the "King of the priests"—as Emperor.

Thus we find the Pope relying on the heir of the Ghibelline Hohenstaufen; and the Guelphic Emperor at strife with the Guelphic cities of Lombardy, and supported in Italy by the Ghibellines, showing how completely the interests of the Empire and Papacy were irrevocably and radically opposed to each other.

Frederic having been crowned King of the Romans

Bouvines,
1214.

at Aix-la-Chapelle, Otto had the folly to leave his dominions and go off to his uncle John, King of England, to assist him in his war against Philippe Auguste of France, leaving the field open to his rival. John and Otto sustained a defeat at the battle of Bouvines.

The German States pronounced in favor of Frederic, and, almost in disgrace, Otto shut himself up in his hereditary Duchy of Brunswick.

Frederic II., to show his gratitude to the Pope, agreed to give up the dominions of the Countess Matilda, to undertake a crusade to Palestine, and to yield up to his son the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, which was to be considered in future an appendage to the Papal See, and never more to be united to the German Empire.

Frederic
II., 1215.

Frederic II., son of Heinrich VI. and Constance de Hauteville (the Nun), in spite of his German blood, was quite an Italian prince, brought up amidst the luxury and romantic passions of the South; and his Sicilian education had given him a taste for Saracenic art, poetry, and music, which brought trouble into his future life. He lived in his palace like an Eastern Sultan, surrounded by tamed lions, going to war mounted on an elephant, indifferent to political questions of the time, and amusing himself with composing verses in the new Italian language, only just beginning to be established with anything like stability.

Frederic quickly forgot his promise to his protector, Innocent III., to allow the separation of the Two Sicilies from the Empire and to undertake a crusade; and it was only on condition of his immediately setting out for the Holy Land that the succeeding Pope Honorius consented to crown him Emperor of Germany. But, braving the pontiff's displeasure, Frederic kept on deferring his crusade, and busied himself with persuading the barons to elect his son, Heinrich, King of the Romans;

intriguing with the Saracens, and even going so far as to import an entire colony of Mohammedans, and place them in Lucera, in the very face of the Pope himself. The latter was at first enraged, but was appeased by fresh promises from Frederic, and by his marriage with Yolande of Jerusalem, daughter of Jean de Brienne, titular King of Jerusalem, and grand-daughter of Foulque of Anjou. By this marriage, Frederic II. became titular King of Jerusalem.

Ten years had elapsed, and still the promised crusade had never been attempted. But when Honorius died, he was succeeded by a clever, obstinate man, Pope Gregory IX., who at once claimed the fulfilment of Frederic's promise. At last, Frederic set to work and made grand preparations on a large scale, even getting so far as to set sail from Brindisi; but an epidemic broke out amongst his followers, and Frederic landed again after three days' absence. The Pope was furious, and so worked upon Frederic's feelings that the latter once more—most reluctantly—embarked for Palestine, and landed in Syria on his way to Jerusalem. There he found that the Pope had sent word beforehand to warn the generals of the army that the Emperor was excommunicated, and was not to be honored as their liege lord on account of his contumacy.

Sixth
Crusade,
1228.

Whereupon Frederic made overtures to the Saracens at Jerusalem, who immediately opened their gates, made a favorable treaty with him, granted him privileges, and promised to give up part of Palestine for his possession. Frederic desired to be crowned King of Jerusalem, but no priest could be found to perform the ceremony on an excommunicated prince, so he took the crown and placed it on his own head.

In 1231, fearing to lose his estates in Italy and Naples, and not daring to linger further among his Saracen

friends, Frederic II. returned to Europe, only to find that the Pope had stirred up what he called a crusade against the "Crusading Emperor," headed by Jean de Brienne, his father-in-law.

1237. Although for a time Frederic's presence restored some sort of peace, and a fleeting reconciliation was made with the Pope, war soon broke out again. The ferocious chief, Ezzilino (Eccelino) III., of the House of Romano, chief of the Ghibelline party, and one of the most redoubtable tyrants ever known in North Italy, called to the Emperor for assistance, and together they seized Padua and other cities of Lombardy, captured Vicenza and Mantua, defeated the Milanese at Corte Nuova, sent their beloved "Caroccio" to Rome as a sign of triumph, and subdued all Lombardy except Brescia and Milan.

But the Pope would not permit the total destruction of the "Lombard League"—now reduced to four towns—and he procured assistance from the Venetians and Genoese. He was still further roused by the fact that Frederic had proclaimed his favorite but illegitimate son, "Enzio the Handsome," King of Sardinia, in defiance of the Pope's asserted right to nominate to the crown. Gregory IX., thoroughly exasperated, excommunicated Frederic a second time, deposed him, and convoked a general council at Rome to decide what was to be done. But before the members could assemble, Frederic laid siege to the old pontiff in his capital; and his fleet, commanded by Enzio, captured and destroyed the Genoese ships, which were conveying the prelates of France to the council.

1241. Gregory IX. died of anger and grief. For the moment Frederic's power seemed fully established. Italy trembled before him, Germany was submissive; and at his bidding deposed his son, Heinrich, from being King

of the Romans, and elected his younger son, Conrad, to fill the place.

Then Frederic gave to his subjects a "code of laws" after the example of Justinian.

Meantime a new and terrible danger threatened to overthrow the Empire, and bring calamity on all Europe. The Huns—always the fiercest and most cruel foes of civilization—poured into Russia under the leadership of a new Attila—a chief named Genghis Khan. Poland and Hungary were invaded, and Germany uttered cries of terror. Even the death of their barbarian leader did not check the fierce onslaught of the Huns. His sons pressed their conquests on all sides. Cracow and Breslau were burnt, and the Duke of Silesia, Henry the Pious, was defeated in the great battle of Liegnitz. 1241, etc.

Frederic II. wrote an eloquent letter inviting all the European sovereigns to unite against the common enemies of Christianity. The Pope, in his frantic rage against Germany, turned a deaf ear to the anguished entreaties of Europe; and, fortunately for the latter, the barbarians did not pursue their advantage, but of their own accord gave up the conquest of the West, and turned back to their own lands.

For nearly two years after Gregory IX.'s death the pontifical throne was vacant; but in 1243, the cardinals (to whom he gave the red hat for the first time) elected Fieschi of Germany, under the name of Innocent IV. He was a former friend of the Emperor, but on his accession to the Papal throne Frederic exclaimed: "*Fieschi* was my friend, but the *Pope* will be my enemy!" At first a semblance of peace was assumed, but on the Emperor's refusal to give up certain prisoners and Guelphic towns, a fresh quarrel broke out, and the Pope took refuge with his compatriots, the Genoese; and then, after appealing in vain to the Kings of France

and England for assistance, he settled at Lyons—which was an almost independent city, under the authority of its own bishop.

1245.

Seventh
Crusade.

From thence he convoked a general council to give judgment on the conduct of Frederic II. In spite of the intervention of the gentle King Louis IX. of France, decision was given against Frederic, and for the third time he was excommunicated. A Bull was published in the churches, and Frederic saw his position threatened on all sides. From that moment the two parties seemed to lose all sense of fear of God or man, and their wild hatred caused a universal scandal throughout Christendom. The Pope wrote to the Sultan of Cairo, begging him to break off his alliance with the Emperor and to re-take Jerusalem. Frederic on his side warned the Saracens of the preparations which Louis the Saint was making for the next crusade. In order to procure soldiers against the Emperor, the Pope gave a dispensation to all crusaders, freeing them from their vow to deliver the Holy Land; and he even sold pardons to criminals condemned by the Inquisition, in order to induce them to enter his service. Frederic then took into his pay Saracens and heretics, and condemned the begging friars, who had preached the Papal crusade against him, to be burnt to death.

Weary with all these dissensions, Frederic at last begged for peace, offering to spend the remainder of his life in Syria. The implacable pontiff refused. He had resolved to unite the kingdom of the Two Sicilies to the patrimony of St. Peter; and it was only by the extermination of the Hohenstaufen dynasty—"that race of vipers," as he called them—that this could be accomplished. The abdication of one man was not sufficient. It was a sad ending to a romantic reign. The Emperor's most faithful subjects were the Sicilians.

In Italy, the strife was complicated by all the horrors of civil and religious warfare. Ezzilino Romano continued to perpetrate the most horrible atrocities in the Emperor's name; and even Frederic himself, soured by adversity, became cruel and vindictive. Terrible stories are told of the reprisals taken by him on helpless prisoners, or former dependants, against whom his jealous suspicions were roused. Adversities thronged upon the unhappy man on all sides. His son, the handsome Enzo, fell into the hands of the inhabitants of Bologna, and was thrown into a prison, where he languished for twenty years. Neither threats nor supplications sufficed to procure his liberty. One day he escaped from prison, hidden in an old cask, but a lock of his hair, seen through a rift in the wood, betrayed him. "Only Prince Enzo the Handsome can have such beautiful fair curls!" cried a woman in the street, and he was taken back and shut up in an iron cage for the rest of his life. Another son, Frederic of Austria, died at the same time. Overwhelmed by such crushing sorrows, Frederic at last succumbed and died in 1250, bequeathing his dominions to his son Conrad.

CHAPTER XXI.

Conrad
IV. and
Manfred,
1250.

THE death of Frederic II. filled the Pope with joy. He preached a crusade against King Conrad IV., and then proceeded to take immediate possession of the imperial dominions in Italy and Sicily. He made a triumphal progress through Lombardy, and was received by 15,000 ecclesiastics at Milan, offering enthusiastic homage to their deliverer, who came, as they declared, to "free them from interdict and excommunication". The success of the pontiff appeared to be certain, but he had reckoned without young Manfred, an illegitimate son of Frederic II., who had been nominated Regent in Sicily, in the absence of his brother Conrad. "This child," as the Pope called him, was only eighteen years of age; but he already displayed the talent of a general and the *sangfroid* and ability of a statesman. In character he was firm and courageous, although less noble than his father, and not disdaining to use base means to gain his purpose. By the intrepid rapidity of his marches, Manfred suppressed the revolt of the towns, and when his brother Conrad arrived from Germany, only Capua and Naples remained to be subdued. Conrad entered the latter by a breach in the walls, delivered the conspirators into the hand of the executioner, and exasperated the inhabitants by putting a bit to the bronze horse of liberty which stood in the public square. But very suddenly Conrad IV. died, leaving as a successor a child of only two years old, Conradino, who was

living with his mother in the hereditary duchies of Swabia and Franconia.

During Conradino's minority two Emperors were named—Alphonso of Castile, who never came to Germany at all; and Richard, Duke of Cornwall, brother of Henry III., who visited Germany for a short time and left it, saying it would not do for him to continue at its head.

Innocent IV., delighted at the death of Conrad, advanced upon Naples at the head of a Guelphic army. The Marquis of Hohenburg, Conradino's guardian, abdicated the regency in favor of Manfred. But Manfred, recognizing the impossibility of resisting such a force, with only the Saracens and Lombards as auxiliaries, decided to throw open the kingdom. He met the Pope himself at the frontier, prostrated himself before him, and crossed the bridge of Garigliano on foot, holding the bridle of the Pope's palfrey. This act of submission, however, neither appeased the pride of Innocent IV. nor the insolence of his Guelphic supporters; and Manfred, despoiled of all his possessions, found himself obliged to flee to save his life.

After an adventurous and romantic journey across the Apennines, he arrived, with only three men for escort, before the gates of Lucera—the strong town guarded by the Arabs (Saracens), who had been placed there by Frederic II., and who were the faithful guardians of his archives and treasures. Manfred made an appeal to these devoted soldiers of his father, and they saluted him with enthusiastic acclamations. But as the keys of the town were held by the governor, who was hostile to the young prince, Manfred tried to penetrate into the town by an opening in the wall made to facilitate the overflow of rain-water; when the Saracens, thinking

such a humiliation to the son of their Emperor insupportable, broke down the gates, and carried him in triumph into the city.

1254. In a few days he had assembled an army with which he marched upon Naples, where Innocent IV. was dying of fatigue and grief, distracted with terrible visions, cursing his family, whom he had enriched at the expense of justice, experiencing in his last moments the horrors of anguish and despair to which his enemy, Frederic II., had been a prey in his last days.

Manfred governed the kingdom of the Two Sicilies at first in the name of his nephew, but on hearing a false report of the death of Conradino, which was designedly spread by his partisans, he had himself proclaimed king at Palermo. His birth and habits attracted the sympathy of the mixed population, where Saracen influence was still strong; and to quiet the complaints of his nephew, he promised him the succession to the throne. For six years Manfred extended his influence to the north of Italy, and excited even the Ghibellines themselves to overthrow the power of Ezzilino di Romano, who, together with his family, perished miserably. He drove the Guelphs from Florence and Lucca, persuaded the nobles of Tuscany to join the Ghibelline league once more, and fomented ill will amongst the people towards the Pope.

The French Pope, Urban IV., seeing himself so gravely threatened by Manfred, looked round for a king who could be placed over the Two Sicilies to serve his own interests. He offered the crown to Henry III. of England, for his weak son, Edmund Crouchback (who had already been chosen King of the Romans); but Henry III. said he was too poor to support his son on the throne of Sicily.

The Pope then had some thoughts of Pedro of Ara-

gon, whose wife was Manfred's sister, Constanza, but finally he appealed to Louis IX., the Saint of France. Louis had too much good feeling to take it for his son; but his brother, the proud, fierce, determined Charles of Anjou, who, as Villani says, "smiled seldom, spoke and slept little, but did much," was not averse to the position. His wife, the beautiful Beatrice, daughter of Raymond, Count of Provence—ambitious to be called a queen like her two sisters—persuaded her husband to accept the title, saying: "My sisters sit on thrones, while I only sit on a footstool".

Entrusting a part of his army to his wife and son-in-law, Robert of Flanders, to be conducted across the plains to North Italy, Charles himself embarked at Marseilles with a thousand knights, passed his enemy's fleet under cover of a storm, and entered Rome to await the arrival of his soldiers. (He was crowned in 1266 with his wife at the Vatican, after promising to restore to the Church the duchy of Benevento, and to pay an annual tribute of 8000 ounces of gold and a white palfrey to the Pope.)

Seeing his projects thus baffled, Manfred tried to enter into negotiation with his rival, but Charles only replied by the insulting message: "Go and tell the Sultan of Lucera that between us there can be neither treaty nor peace, and that very soon he will either send me to Paradise or I will send him to hell".

A decisive battle took place at Grandella near Bene-
Battle of
Benevento
1263. v
 vento. Manfred had the advantage at first, when Charles gave the unmanly order to aim at the horses. At the moment when Manfred was preparing to charge with his reserve, the silver eagle ornamenting his helmet suddenly fell to the ground. "It is a sign from heaven," he cried, and threw himself into the *mêlée*. He was not found till three days afterwards, pierced with wounds.

Charles refused him honorable burial. The French knights, each carrying a stone, raised a monument to him; but the Pope's "nuncio" caused the body of the unfortunate prince to be disinterred, and thrown across the frontier, abandoned to winds and rains.

Charles of Anjou entered Naples in triumph, amidst cries of enthusiasm from his new subjects. But very soon the exactions of his officers, the confiscations and acts of outrageous violence of the Provençal soldiers towards the Italians provoked a terrible reaction. The widow of Manfred had been conveyed to a dungeon in Provence, where her children languished thirty-one years. The Ghibellines and all discontented subjects turned their eyes towards young Conradino.

CHAPTER XXII.

MEANTIME Conradino was growing up strong, beautiful, and beloved at the court of his uncle, Ludwig, Elector of Bavaria. He was sixteen years of age, tall of stature, with singularly beautiful features, and remarkable for his gracious manners and excessive generosity. Like all his race he was gifted with much intelligence and love of art. One of his poems is still preserved. A great friendship had sprung up between himself and Frederic of Baden, his senior by three years, who had been deprived of his hereditary estates in Austria by the Pope's favorite, Ottocar II., King of Bohemia. Although exiled, and despoiled by his uncle and other grasping relations, Conradino never ceased to show them the greatest affection and most entire confidence. He had successively sold or mortgaged all his dominions, and he was leading a poor, wandering life among the castles of Thurgau and Swabia, when the deputies of the Ghibelline party came to bring him money, and to beg him to come down into Italy to recover the throne of his ancestors.

Conradino the last Hohenstaufen, 1268.

Conradino accepted the offer, in spite of his mother's tears.

All seemed at first to go well. The nobles of Germany followed him. Sicily rose in his favor. The French fleet was destroyed by his own ships. He was received in triumph at Pisa, Siena, and even in Rome, from which the Senator, Henri of Castile, had just expelled the Pope.

Passing by the fortress of Viterbo, where the Pope had

taken refuge, Clement IV.—after excommunicating Conradino—looked down on the two young princes as they rode by. “Behold the victims for the sacrifice,” he said; “in eight days nothing will remain of that army.”

Tagliacozzo,
1268.

It was only too true a prophecy. At the battle of Tagliacozzo (or Alba, near Aquila), fought in August, 1268, Conradino was defeated. Fleeing with his friend, Frederic, and some unfortunate companions, in disguise, he reached the shores of the Mediterranean, and procured a bark to take them to Pisa; but a gentleman who had recognized him pursued and captured him, and in spite of all supplications, sold him to Charles of Anjou, who obliged him to follow his army to Rome, on foot and in chains.

The Pope desired that Conradino should be given up into his hands, but Charles was determined on his death; and after keeping him a prisoner at Naples for a considerable time, a form of trial was gone through. Only one of his judges could be induced to pronounce the sentence of death. Conradino was quietly playing at chess with his friend, Frederic of Austria—who was to share his fate—when the terrible news was brought to them. Without showing any sign of fear, the two princes asked for three days in which to prepare for death. They made their wills, obtained absolution from the Pope, and received the last sacrament together. In the public market place Charles had caused a throne to be erected, that he might witness the execution.

1269.

The scaffold was covered with red cloth, in honor of the royal victims, and a concourse of people was assembled. On mounting the platform, Conradino exclaimed: “Alas! my mother! How deep will be thy sorrow at the news of this day.” He then addressed the people, protesting against the injustice of the sentence; and when the executioner raised the axe, even

the French knights shed tears, and all the spectators fell on their knees. A bitter cry escaped young Frederic of Austria as Conradino's head fell; then, with eleven other Ghibelline gentlemen, he in his turn underwent the same fate.

Beside himself with indignation, Robert of Flanders, the king's son-in-law, flung himself upon the worthless judge who had pronounced the fatal sentence, and with one stroke of the sword, flung him from the balcony amidst the approving cheers of the multitude.

Even in death the implacable hatred of Charles of Anjou followed the poor young men. He relentlessly forbade their bodies to be buried in consecrated ground, and they were secretly interred in the sand by the sea-shore. Tradition says that the moment before receiving the mortal blow, Conradino threw his glove into the crowd, and it was picked up by a Swabian knight and carried to his cousin, Pedro of Aragon, the husband of Manfred's sister, Constanza. But the cruel death of the last of the Hohenstaufen was not to go unavenged.

The Sicilians, passionately attached to their country, proud, suspicious, jealous of strangers—already deeply hurt by the scornful and careless manner of the Provençals—were ready to take offence at the least provocation. They were, besides, devoted to the Swabian House of Hohenstaufen since the days of Frederic II., and were indignant at seeing their beautiful island degraded to the rank of a simple province. Palermo, in particular, never forgot that in the time of the Norman rule she had been the metropolis of the kingdom. A profound hatred filled the hearts of the conquered race and one spark produced a fearful conflagration.

On the 30th of March, 1282 (Easter Monday), the inhabitants of Palermo, in holiday costume, were pouring out of the town to attend the vesper service at the

Sicilian
Vespers
1282.

church at the summit of Monreale. They had been forbidden to carry arms, and under pretence of searching for these, a French soldier insulted a young girl walking with her lover. "Death to the French!" was the indignant cry of the Sicilian as he stabbed the Frenchman to the heart. He was instantly cut down himself. This was a signal for a general rising of the people. The alarm was sounded, and in a few hours thousands of Provençals were killed—men, women, and children all alike struck down without pity. A few days later, Messina followed the example of Palermo; and during the following month the insurrection spread over the whole island.

The massacre of the Sicilian Vespers has gone down from generation to generation as a by-word of horror for the maddened wrath of an injured people.

When Charles of Anjou heard the news at Naples, he remained silent for a time, glaring fiercely round him, gnawing the top of his sceptre, and then burst forth into terrific vows of vengeance. He crossed over to Sicily with a formidable army of 75,000 men, and laid siege to Messina.

After a long struggle, the inhabitants offered to lay down their arms on condition of an amnesty; but Charles absolutely refused, saying he required 800 heads from Messina alone. Then in their distress the Sicilians made overtures to Pedro of Aragon, who hurried to their assistance with a fleet commanded by the celebrated Roger de Loria. A battle took place in the Bay of Naples, when Charles the Lamé, son of Charles of Anjou, fell a prisoner into the hands of the Spaniards, and was sent to Spain as a hostage.

Pedro of Aragon remained master of Sicily, though the strife continued between the Anjouvins and the Aragonese till the end of the century.

INTERREGNUM, 1250-1273.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE death of Conradino brings the House of Hohenstaufen to an end, and the terms "Guelph" and "Ghibelline" cease to have any real meaning, although the titles were still used for party strifes in the incessant civil wars which followed this period. With the ruin of the Hohenstaufen family, several of the great republican cities of Italy declined, being unable to withstand the continued attacks of their enemies; as, for instance, Pisa, which suffered so terribly at the hands of their Genoese adversaries as to give occasion for the proverb: "Do you want to see Pisa? Go to Genoa."

Interregnum,
1250-
1273.

All over North Italy the republican governments were displaced to make room for powerful rising families, the heads of whom reigned as "podestàs" or tyrants.

Germany was in a state of the greatest disturbance. On the death of Conradino, Swabia and Franconia, which had belonged to his family, were dismembered. Sovereignty was lost as the numerous duchies, counties, bishoprics, and leading towns were thus dismembered, and imperial authority became nil. The vassal princes, the Kings of Denmark, Poland, Hungary, and Burgundy, threw off the yoke of the Empire, and declared themselves independent. The reputation of the throne had become so degraded that no candidates presented themselves for election, and the crown was even offered to foreigners.

It would be difficult to imagine to what a condition of disorder and confusion the country, after the death of Frederic II., had been reduced. War and strife filled every corner and district. The "robber knights" held powerful castles on the banks of the Elbe and Rhine, and compelled all vessels desirous of landing to pay heavy tolls. On the highroads they lay in wait for trains of rich merchants travelling from city to city, plundered them, took them prisoners, and only released them on payment of exorbitant ransoms. They robbed the peasantry, and carried off their cattle. By sea, the Danes and Swedes seized the trading vessels, and having secured their booty, sank the ships.

Hanse-
atic
League,
1241.

The rich commercial towns of Hamburg and Lübeck—called Hanse towns since the days of Conrad III. (1140)—at last resolved on combining to defend themselves. and entered into a League (*Handelverbindung*). They raised troops to protect their property on land, and built warships to keep their trading vessels safe on the Rhine and Elbe.

The robber knights were taken by surprise and overpowered, their fortresses destroyed, their fleet scattered, and they themselves put to death.

When the other towns saw how securely Hamburg and Lübeck could carry on their commerce, they also joined the League; and the number of towns was increased by Rostock, Wismar, Braunschweig, Stralsund, Greifswald, Kolberg, Stettin, Berlin, Frankfort, Königsberg, Danzig, Magdeburg, Köln, etc.; and at last eighty-five cities, with a powerful army and a fleet of 200 ships, found themselves in a position of absolute command.

Their strength was so great that they could attack any place with certainty; and on one occasion even besieged Waldemar, King of Denmark, in his capital of Copenhagen.

For nearly 300 years the Hanse towns kept up their position of power and importance. But in course of time, as order was restored in Germany, one town after another withdrew from the League; and at the present moment only Hamburg, Lübeck, and Bremen retain the name of "Hanse towns," and the rights which accrued from the League.

THE TWELFTH AND THIRTEENTH CENTURIES.

The influence of the crusades on mediæval Europe was Influence of Crusades. important from the mingling of various races, the drawing together of all Christian nations in the pursuit of one idea, and that idea a spiritual and disinterested one, dominating material interests. The crusades, no doubt, assisted in enlarging and developing men's minds, opening up an almost unknown world in the East, and helping the Teuton races to profit by contact with the superior civilization of the Greeks and Saracens.

During the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the art Science. of medicine, the establishment of universities, the study of languages, natural science, philosophy, geography, history, etc., all owe their importance to Saracenic association.

Commerce made great strides, as well as the knowl- Discoveries. edge of navigation, with the use of the mariner's compass learnt from the Arabs, but probably borrowed from the Chinese.

When the rich stores of Asia—such as precious stones, Com-merce. ebony, cotton, silk, pepper, cinnamon, balm, dates, sugar, myrrh, aloes, musk, etc.—arrived in Italy, they were transported across the Alps to the great merchant cities of Augsburg, Nüremberg, Erfurt, Mayence, and Cologne, from whence a portion was again sent further to the Balkan Provinces and the centre of Russia. The

merchandise of the South, thus exchanged for that of the North in wood, hemp, tallow, amber, bees' wax, and furs, caused the growth and prosperity of the Hanse towns.

Politically, the crusades checked the inroads of the Turks, and preserved Europe from the yoke of Mohammedanism. The feudal system was relaxed as royalty grew into power and the commons became enfranchised.

Chivalry.

The orders of chivalry, the use of tournaments, armories, etc., are all significant of the new state of Christian Europe.

Lower Orders.

Liberty was given to the lower orders, and the condition of the serfs much improved.

Morals.

But, on the other hand, the crusades had a fatal effect upon religion and morals, although they would seem to have been promoted by a deeply religious feeling. The crusaders grew to think that being engaged in a "holy war" left them free to commit excesses of all kinds, in the persuasion that they were serving God. The Popes openly offered remission of the most atrocious crimes, in return for sanguinary warfare and bloody deeds often carried out simply in the interests of the Papacy.

Astrology, etc

The twelfth century was an epoch of political and intellectual progress. Science rapidly advanced, though curiously mixed up with all kinds of superstition and supernatural fancies. The great men of the day put their faith in astrology, alchemy, the "philosopher's stone," and magic, even whilst searching for—and in some cases succeeding in making—grand discoveries when in pursuit of these very things.

Gunpowder, etc.

Roger Bacon invented telescopes, discovered the laws of refraction, and introduced gunpowder (probably also from the Chinese through the medium of the

Arabs). In searching for the "philosopher's stone,"¹ Arnaud de Villeneuve discovered the use of the three acids—nitric, sulphuric, and muriatic—and learnt the way to distil brandy; but, like Roger Bacon, he was suspected of heresy, and placed under the ban of the Church, so that his discoveries were not generally accepted till long after the time they were made.

The literature of the twelfth century was greatly enriched by the use of the Romance languages—Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese—which were spread by jongleurs and troubadours throughout Europe. Their songs and ballads laid the foundation of modern poetry, and gave us the heroic deeds of Charlemagne, Roland, and the British King Arthur in verse; whilst Germany furnished the "Minnesingers," amongst whom nobles and even kings were not ashamed to take a place. The celebrated "Nibelungenlied" dates from this period. It is filled with legends of Scandinavian and German heroes, mixed up with stories of Attila and the Huns, and is compared by admiring Germans to the "Iliad" of Homer. The fine pictures illustrating the poems are to be seen in the king's palace at Munich.

Great changes took place in architecture. The corporations of "Freemasons" built beautiful cathedrals, caring nothing for money or renown, but giving their time and work for the glory of God, and leaving to the public but few names of these self-sacrificing workmen.

Religious feeling in the middle ages left its stamp on all art; and not only in church building but in sculpture, painting, stained glass windows, tapestry, jewelry, and music can its influence be clearly marked.

Even as early as the fourth century there were signs of protest against such abuses in the Church as the worship

¹ By means of which baser metals might be turned into pure gold.

Romance
Lan-
guages.

Minne-
singers.

Nibel-
ungen-
lied.

Architec-
ture.
Free-
masons.

Art.

Signs of
a coming
Refor-
mation.
Errors in
the
Church.

Vaudois.

of images and of the Virgin and saints, the celibacy of the clergy, and the supremacy of the Pope. But in the ninth century a strong effort was made by the venerable Archbishop *Claude of Turin*, founder of the Vaudois Church in Piedmont, to reform the Church. He was Spanish by birth, and chaplain to the Emperor Louis le Débonnaire, under whose protection he was allowed to retain his see for seventeen years.

Chr

Gotteschalk, also in the ninth century, and *Bérenger*, Archbishop of Tours, in the eleventh century, protested against the new doctrine of "Transubstantiation" introduced by Paschase Ratbert.

The careful teaching of Claude of Turin preserved the pure Gospel doctrines during his lifetime; and it was not until the twelfth century that the Vaudois quitted the Church of Rome and began to be persecuted for their religion.

Peter Valdo, the great promoter of religious movement at Lyons, made the first translation of the Scriptures into the Romance language, and distributed copies amongst the poor; but persecution obliged him to flee for refuge to Germany, and he died in Bohemia, 1179.

The Vaudois were scattered throughout Central Europe, leaving traces of their teaching in Alsace, Trèves, Cologne, Passau, Bohemia, Poland, Hungary, and Dalmatia, as well as in Italy and Spain, and paving the way for the future upheaving of Protestantism under John Huss, Wicliff, and Martin Luther.

The need for reform was general at the beginning of the thirteenth century; but all attempts as yet were premature and ineffectual against the formidable power of the Roman hierarchy, especially when wielded by the arm of such a man as Innocent III., 1198-1204.

HOUSES OF HAPSBURG, LUXEMBURG, BAVARIA, ETC.

CHAPTER XXIV.

IN the year 1273 the Germans began to realize that they could not carry on the Empire without a head; and in the difficulty of choice, when so few were ambitious of the position, the Archbishop of Mainz proposed that they should elect Rodolf, Count of Hapsburg—a prudent, courageous man, renowned for his piety, loyalty, and justice.

Rodolf I.
of Haps-
burg,
1273.

The count had large possessions in Swabia, Alsace, and Switzerland, but his home was the Castle of "Habichtsburg," or Hapsburg, whose ruins can be seen to this day on a steep, forest-crowned height overlooking the Aar, in the Swiss Canton of Aargau. He was a man of singularly straightforward honesty of purpose, determination, and deeply religious feeling. Many anecdotes are told to exemplify these traits.

At his coronation at Aachen a sceptre was not forthcoming, when he reverently lifted a crucifix, saying: "This holy symbol which has saved the world may well replace a sceptre."

His election was eagerly confirmed by Pope Gregory X., who met him in a friendly spirit at Lausanne, and promised him his full support on condition of his ceding the dominions of the Countess Matilda and all authority over the Church of Rome. This Rodolf consented to

do at the period of the Sicilian Vespers, when he renounced all the pretensions of the Hohenstaufen in Italy, and contented himself with drawing large sums of money from the principal Italian cities, in return for the confirmation of their privileges. "Italy," he said, "appears to me like the lair of a lion—I see many traces of Emperors going into it, but none of any coming out."

Rodolf suppressed the robber knights, and in one year destroyed as many as seventy of their strongholds. He condemned all the knights to death, saying: "I do not consider any man worthy to be called a knight who lives by robbery and dishonesty".

Although he was stern with wrong-doers, Rodolf was most gentle and forbearing with others, and he was truly beloved by his subjects.

Anecdotes of
Rodolf.

One day when he was encamped with his army before Mainz, he walked into the city in the early morning alone. He was lightly clad, the weather was bitter, and very soon he was nearly frozen with the cold. Passing a baker's shop, with its glowing oven standing invitingly open, he turned in to get warm. But the baker's wife did not approve of stragglers from the camp, and tried to turn him out, exclaiming: "Get along to your own business; go back to your beggar-king, who is troubling the whole country with his soldiers!" As the king did not move at once, she seized a jug of cold water and poured it over him. The king returned smiling to the camp. That evening as he sat at dinner with his nobles, he ordered a flask of the best wine and a dish of the finest meats to be sent to the baker's wife, with the message "that it was sent from the camp by the soldier who had had the pleasure of enjoying her cold water that day". The poor woman, horrified at what she had done, flew to the camp, and fell at the king's feet,—as he still sat at the dining-table,—imploping pardon. He laughed

lightly, and said that the only punishment he should impose upon her was that she should relate the story herself to the assembled guests, and that if she blundered he would correct her!

On another occasion a beggar, asking alms of the Emperor, used the expression, "*Brother* Rodolf, give me some help". "Since when I have been your brother?" inquired Rodolf. "Are we not all brothers through Adam?" retorted the beggar. "Ah, true," said Rodolf; and gave him a penny. "But," remonstrated the beggar, "a penny is very little for a great monarch to bestow." "Yes," answered Rodolf; "but, then, if all your brothers through Adam were to give the same, you would be a rich man."

Rodolf's chief anxiety was to restore peace and order in Germany. Most of the refractory princes submitted to him; except Ottocar, the powerful King of Bohemia, who—on the extinction of the Austrian House of Babenberg (Bamberg)—had seized all the hereditary countries of Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and refused three times to recognize Rodolf as Emperor, calling him ironically "the poor count".

Rodolf marched against him with a large army, and on the plains around Vienna, Ottocar lost both kingdom and life on the field of battle. The Austrian dukedom, recovered from Ottocar, was given by Rodolf to his son, Albrecht; and the House of Hapsburg is still the reigning House in Austria.

The kingdom of Bohemia was given to young Wenceslas IV.,¹ who soon married one of Rodolf's numerous daughters. Four of the electors of Germany became in the same way sons-in-law of the Emperor.

The dismembered fiefs of Savoy—"Pays de Vaud"

¹ Second King of Bohemia.

Ottocar
II. of
Bohemia

Marzfeld
1278.

Albrecht
of Haps-
burg.

and the towns of Payerne and Morat—were once more drawn back into the Empire. Rodolf nearly lost his life in a battle near the town of Morat. When thrown from his horse and surrounded by enemies, he flung himself into the lake, and grasping the branch of a tree with one hand, he defended himself with the other until his followers could reach him.

1291.

After a vain attempt to capture Berne, he died at the age of seventy-four, and was buried in the Cathedral of Speier, universally mourned by his subjects, who called him the “Founder of the German Kingdom”.

CHAPTER XXV.

SOME troubled years followed. Adolf of Nassau was placed on the throne, but was deposed by the German princes, who elected Albrecht I., Rodolf's second son, as their Emperor.

Albrecht I. was a powerful but stern and cruel prince. His reign was chiefly remarkable for the struggle for freedom made by the Swiss Cantons of Schweitz, Uri, and Unterwalden against the oppressive rule of the Austrian House, in which the well-known figures of Gessler, Wilhelm Tell, Stauffacher, Von Winkelried, Walther Fürst, and Ulrich der Schmidt, amongst others, are so conspicuous in the formation of the Swiss Confederation.

Before the conclusion of this strife, however, Albrecht I. was murdered in front of his castle of Hapsburg by his nephew, Johann (called the Parricide), in revenge for his uncle having supplanted him on the German throne—Johann being the son of Rodolf's eldest son, whilst Albrecht was Rodolf's second son.

On the death of Albrecht I., Heinrich of Luxembourg (a descendant of Frederic Barbarossa, of the Swabian House of Hohenstauffen) was elected Emperor as Heinrich VII.; but he only reigned five years, and was deposed in 1313. Some say he was poisoned whilst besieging Brescia.

The choice of a successor involved the country in a devastating war, which lasted eight years.

One party in the State wished to have Frederic III.

Ludwig
IV. of
Bavaria,
1314.

(the Handsome), son of Albrecht I. of Austria; the other voted for Ludwig of Bavaria, descendant of the House of Wittelsbach.

Morgarten,
1315.

The Swiss held with Ludwig of Bavaria. Frederic's brother, Leopold I. of Austria, led an army against them, and a terrible battle was fought at Morgarten. hut in between a steep hill on one hand, and the lake of Aigri¹ on the other, the heavily encumbered Austrian cavalry had no room to make a charge. The confederates, armed with clubs, halberts, and pikes, dashed down on the unfortunate army—hemmed in on all sides—and an hour and a half was sufficient to give victory to the Swiss. Leopold of Austria barely escaped with his life.

Mühldorf,
1328.

Schweppermann

Meanwhile, the war between the rival emperors was carried on with great bitterness. At Mühldorf, Frederic fought with unheard-of valor, and victory seemed to be certain, when Ludwig's gallant general, Siegfried von Schweppermann, ordered an evolution by which the Austrian forces would have sun, wind, and dust full in their faces. At the same time, he sent a number of his horsemen—under the command of Count Frederic of Nüremberg—to ride round to the back of the enemy, flying the captured flags of the Austrians. The latter thought they were friendly reinforcements coming to their assistance. This stratagem completed the victory. The day was lost to the Austrians, and the Emperor Frederic III. was taken prisoner. Ludwig learnt to whom he owed his victory; and in the evening when the battle was over, and he and his tired officers were refreshing themselves as well as they could in a peasant's hut, sharing the few eggs that could be collected, he exclaimed: "One egg apiece all round, but two eggs for the gallant Schweppermann".

Frederic of Austria was imprisoned in the Castle of

¹ Egeri.

Trausnitz in Tyrol, and kept there three years. He was then released, on condition that he should never make any other further effort to regain his throne; and that, should he ever attempt to do so, he should be imprisoned.

Frederic hurried to Vienna to rejoin his faithful wife, Elizabeth, who had wept herself blind with grief at his absence.

But his brother, Leopold, did not consider himself bound by the same treaty, and took up arms against Ludwig. Then Frederic, considering his "parole" broken by his brother's action, returned to Bavaria, and, in conformity with his oath, gave himself up once more as a prisoner. Touched by his high sense of honor, Ludwig made real friends with Frederic. He treated him like his own brother, and, according to the custom of the day, shared the same food and bed; and even proposed an arrangement by which they should divide the empire between them. This however, the nobles declared to be inadmissible.

In the following year Frederic with his blind wife retired to his lovely castle of Gutenstein in Austria, where he soon after died.

Ludwig reigned seventeen years after his death, but his reign was clouded with sorrows and difficulties.

1330.

Ludwig
IV. alone.

To curb the pretensions of the Papal See, he issued a Pragmatic Sanction at Frankfort, declaring that any prince regularly elected by the German States should be recognized as Emperor without requiring the ratification of the Pope. Clement VI.—already irritated against Ludwig—persuaded a certain number of the electors to choose a new Emperor—Charles of Luxemburg, son of the blind King Johann of Bohemia, and grandson of Heinrich VII.—but Ludwig easily held his own position till his death in 1347,

Prag-
matic
Sanction
of "Elec-
tion".

1347.

CHAPTER XXVI.

Charles
IV. of
Luxem-
burg,
1347.

CHARLES IV. of Luxemburg succeeded Ludwig IV. His mother, Elizabeth, was daughter and heiress of the Bohemian king, Wenceslas¹ V., and his blind father, Johann, had, by the choice of the people, obtained the crown of Bohemia. He was killed at the battle of Crecy in 1346.

Charles, therefore, possessed Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia; and he further acquired Brandenburg and Lusatia, a marquisate in North Germany.

He was untiring in his warlike efforts to strengthen his kingdom, and his endeavors to benefit his subjects. He would wander through the streets disguised in some homely dress, in order to see with his own eyes where real need was most pressing.

Univer-
sity of
Prague.

He enlarged and beautified the city, and built the first German University of Prague in 1348.

Golden
Bull."

Seeing the difficulties in which Germany was involved whenever a new Emperor was to be elected, Charles IV. issued a "Golden Bull" (so called because the seals were enclosed in a golden box), by which the forms of election were decided, and the choice of future Emperors limited to seven Electors, namely:—

Seven
Electors.

Four Princes—King of Bohemia, Count Palatine of the Rhine, Duke of Saxony, Markgraf of Brandenburg. *Three Archbishops*—Mainz (Mayence), Trier (Trèves), Köln (Cologne).

¹ Wenceslas, third King of Bohemia.

The beginning of his reign was marked throughout Europe by the desolating plague called the "Black Death," when all medicinal aids failed, and more than half the people succumbed to the disease.

Charles IV.'s reign lasted for thirty-two years, and on his death he was mourned by the Bohemians as the 1378.
"Father of his people".

CHAPTER XXVII.

Wences-
las of
Luxem-
burg (the
Drunk-
ard),
1376.

His son and successor, Wenceslas, was quite incompetent to hold the reins of government, and not only in his own hereditary kingdom of Bohemia, but throughout Germany, there prevailed such lawlessness and confusion, that the only means by which merchandise could be safely carried on was by such Leagues as the "Hansebund," "Schwäbischen," and "Rheinischen Städtebünde" (Hanseatic, Swabian, and Rhenish Leagues).

Sempach,
1386.

In his reign the celebrated battle of Sempach was fought between Duke Leopold III. (grandson of that Duke Leopold I. of Austria who was defeated at Morgarten) and the Swiss, when Arnold von Winkelried rushed forward to the hitherto invincible six line deep of Austrian spears, and shouting: "I will make a path for freedom! Take care of my wife and child, comrades!" grasped an armful of spears and turned them against his own breast; and so dying, opened the enemy's ranks for his brave Swiss followers to win the day. Duke Leopold was slain, and the flower of the Austrian cavalry perished. This victory was decisive for the liberty of Switzerland, which, however, was not fully recognized till the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648.

Meantime, Wenceslas lived in Prague, almost always in a state of intoxication, and given up to deeds of unrestrained cruelty and self-indulgence. He would march through the streets accompanied by an executioner, to kill any one who offended him. At one time

he massacred 3000 Jews, and cut off the heads of all to whom he owed money.

He cared nothing for the affairs of the State, and at last matters came to such a pass that he was twice imprisoned by the opposing party, and finally forced to resign the imperial crown, and retire to his hereditary kingdom of Bohemia, whilst three other Emperors were successively elected to replace him by various parties of the electors.

Frederic, Duke of Brunswick, was one of those elected, but was assassinated immediately after his election, and is, therefore, seldom placed on a list of Emperors.

Frederic
of Brun-
swick,
1400.

Rupert, Count Palatine of the Rhine, was elected after Frederic of Brunswick. He was crowned at Köln, and died in 1410.

Rupert,
Count
Palatine,
1400.
1410.

Jossus, Marquis of Moravia, was next elected by one party of electors; but the others declared for Sigismund of Luxemburg, brother of Wenceslas. Jossus' death in the following year decided the question.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Sigismund,
1410.

SIGISMUND of Luxemburg was already King of Hungary by his marriage with Mary, daughter of Ludwig I., the Great, of Hungary, in 1387; and in 1410, having been already put forward by one party of electors, he was recognized as Emperor by all Germany. On the death of his brother Wenceslas (the Drunkard), in 1419, he also became King of Bohemia. His character was, no doubt, better than that of his brother; but he was a vain, weak man, and not sufficiently noble-minded to inspire respect or admiration.

Hohenzollern
Family
in
Prussia.

At the time that there was a doubt as to Sigismund's election, his cousin, Frederic of Bavaria (called Frederic of Nuremberg), of the House of Hohenzollern, employed himself actively in gaining for Sigismund the goodwill of the electors; and when Sigismund was safely established on the throne, he gave as recompense to his cousin the Margravate and Electorate of Brandenburg, in return for a sum of 100,000 ducats. This transaction laid the foundation of the new kingdom of Prussia, which was destined to become the great central power of United Germany 400 years later, still preserving at its head the reigning family of Hohenzollern.

Brandenburg and
Rise of
Prussia,
1416.

Hungary,
united to
Germany.

Sigismund's reign is memorable from this fact, and also that from this time is dated the connection between Hungary and the Empire.

Hussite
Wars.

The whole of Sigismund's dominions were wasted by the wars of the Hussites, which lasted fourteen years. Church matters were in great confusion; and during

the reign of his brother, Wenceslas. three Popes had claimed dominion at the same time. One of these, John XXIII., had been a pirate in his youth, and was a man of notoriously bad life; Benedict XIII. was supported by Wenceslas and the King of Spain; Gregory XII., by Rupert, Count Palatine and Emperor, and by Ladislas, King of Naples.

Three
Popes.

Cloister life had degenerated into ignorance and corruption, gross abuses had crept into the Church, and holy offices were made objects of traffic. The Popes introduced the system of indulgences, and begging friars were sent round the country to sell them.

Corrup-
tions of
the
Church.

Against these abuses John Huss and his friend Jerome of Prague raised their passionate protests, boldly denouncing the errors of the Papacy, and calling on all who valued the Church to rise up in defence of its purity. Bohemia had sheltered for many years the scattered Vaudois; and during the frequent intercourse with England, brought about by the marriage of Anne, sister of Wenceslas and Sigismund, with Richard II., the Slav and Czech population had had frequent opportunities of hearing the doctrines of Wicliff introduced by his works into the country; and a great number of students withdrew from the University of Prague to follow Huss.

John Huss
and Jerome
of Prague.

Although cited to appear before the Papal court at Rome, Huss did not even take the trouble to reply to the Pope's message; but openly counselled the people to read the writings of Wicliff, which the Archbishop of Prague had condemned to be burnt.

The archbishop excommunicated Huss, and laid the country under an interdict; when Huss, relying on the favor of the people for safety, retired to his native village of Hussinetz, and continued to preach to large multitudes, and to publish tracts showing up the vices and corruptions of the clergy.

Council of
Constance,
1414.

The German nobles entreated the Emperor Sigismund to call a general Council at Constance, on the Boden-See, that the Church might be purified.¹

Deaths of
Huss and
Jerome,
1415-16.

Huss was summoned, and, furnished with an imperial safe-conduct, he appeared before the Council, but the accusations of his enemies were so forcible that the members of the Council refused to listen to his defence; and in spite of the royal guarantee of his life and liberty, he was first thrown into prison, and a year afterwards condemned to be burnt alive. He suffered his fate on 4th July, 1415, followed the next year by his friend (Hieronimus) Jerome of Prague. The news of their deaths, and of the treachery used towards them, roused violent popular sympathy.

The followers of Huss, headed by his patron, Nicolas von Hussinec (Hussinetz), in spite of their fierce opposition, were declared heretics, like their master.

On one occasion in Prague a Hussite priest was thrown from a window of the Council Chamber with a stone round his neck, upon which the raging mob stormed the town hall, and, out of revenge for the insult to their friend, they flung thirteen councillors out of the window in the same manner.

War instantly burst forth.

Ziska the
Blind.

A knight named Johann de Trocznow (Ziska), one of the chamberlains of the Emperor Wenceslas, placed himself at the head of the Hussites, and raised the standard of a religious war. He was a man of extraordinary power and courage; and though he had lost one eye by an accident, he commanded his troops with un-

¹ At the Council of Constance, which Sigismund opened in imitation of Constantine the Great at Nicea, he exposed his vanity and ignorance by making a mistake in his Latin, and excusing himself for it by saying: "I am King of the Romans, and above all rules of grammar".

ceasing vigor. The Hussites were called "Calixtins," ^{"Calixtins."} from the holy chalice which Ziska had chosen as his armorial sign; and the followers of Wicliff's doctrines, or the ancient Vaudois, were known as "Taborites," ^{"Taborites."} from the hill of Tabor, where their first camp was stationed.

In vain the Emperor Sigismund entered Bohemia to stem the revolt. His army was cut to pieces. In spite of the loss of his second eye in the battle, the terrible Ziska the Blind was so thoroughly acquainted with all the roads and forest paths, mountains and valleys of his country, that he still continued to lead his victorious army. It was only his death from the plague in 1424 ^{1424.} which gave a check to the fearful campaign. Even then he ordered that his skin should be made into a drum, in order that after death he might continue to strike terror into the hearts of the Germans.

The command of the Hussite troops was taken by Prakob the Great and Prakob the Little. The imperial troops were powerless to withstand them, and fled as soon as the Hussites presented themselves.

With a desire to put an end to this miserable bloodshed, the Council of Basel was summoned; when such ^{Council of Basel, 1433.} of the Hussites as would accept the conditions of the "Prägerartikel" were readmitted to communion with the Church; and after fourteen years of strife, the war at last came to an end.

In 1438, the Emperor Sigismund was driven from the ^{1438.} throne, and was succeeded by his son-in-law, Albrecht of Austria.

Frederic's character is marked by indolence and indifference, in curious contrast to his impetuous, eager son who succeeded him. He cared nothing for his kingdom's troubles, but spent his time in his garden picking up snails and catching slugs, whilst his kingdom was assailed by enemies on all sides. His wife said of him that "Frederic would not take the trouble to turn the handles of the doors, but would keep his hands in his pockets, and kick at them till some one came to open them". By doing this so frequently, he injured his feet; and to avoid mortification, the surgeon was obliged to amputate them.

In 1477, his son, Maximilian, married Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy. 1477.

Frederic III. died in 1493.

1493.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

The sixteenth century continues the *Modern Era* begun at the end of the fifteenth, and which is reckoned, from the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. Sixteenth Century.

The century is remarkable for great *discoveries* used for the first time (discovered earlier, but not employed at once), such as the mariner's compass, gunpowder, printing, great maritime discoveries of America, the way to India and the Cape of Good Hope, etc., the study of dead languages and antiquities leading to the *Renaissance* of Art and the *Reformation* of Christianity.

The political characteristics of the century are the great *predominance of Spain* in the West, and of the *Ottoman Empire* in the east of Europe.

Germany was composed of a great number of states, each independent of each other, but forming together a sort of confederation with a Diet and an Emperor at their head. The authority of the Emperor was almost

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA (EXCLUSIVELY).

CHAPTER XXIX.

Albrecht
II. of
Austria,
1438.

ALBRECHT II., the Great (fifth Duke of Austria), King of Hungary and Bohemia, promised to be an able ruler. He was son-in-law of Sigismund, whom he drove from the throne; but he only reigned one year, and died in 1439.

Interreg-
num, 1439.

An interregnum occurred, when the Pragmatic Sanction of Ludwig IV. was issued, confining the Empire to the House of Austria.

Frederic
III., the
Pacific,
1440;
sometimes
called
Frederic
IV.

Frederic III., the Pacific (or the "Nightcap," from his falling asleep during important council meetings), was elected Emperor. He gave up privileges by a new concordat. He received the imperial crown and the iron crown from Pope Nicholas V., and was the last German Emperor crowned in Rome and Bohemia,¹ marking the close of the Middle Ages. He lost Hungary by the valiant resistance of John Hunniades² in 1445, and Bohemia through George Podiebrad, 1458.

John Hun-
niades,
1445.
George
Podiebrad,
1458.

The Turks ravaged the borderland. The Swiss rose and formed the Confederation of Gray-cloaks (Grisons), against whom Frederic hired the Armagnacs³ (French mercenaries), as he refused to go to battle himself.

¹ Frederic III. invented the proud motto of Austria, A.E.I.O.U., "*Austriæ est imperare orbi universo*".

² Matthias Corvinus, son of Hunniades, became King of Hungary at sixteen. He took Silesia, Moravia, Lusatia and a large part of Austria from Frederic III. and held all his conquests till his death.

³ *N.B.*—Louis d'Orleans, brother of Charles VI. of France, married a daughter of the Comte d'Armagnac, and became the head of the Orleanist party, under the name of Armagnacs.

nil; and even that of the Diet, though always recognized, was often defied by the princes in this century. The leading Houses were:—

I. *The House of Hapsburg, or Austria*, which possessed large *hereditary* estates—the Archduchy of Austria, Tyrol, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, part of Swabia, and a large portion of Alsace. Maximilian, by his marriage with Mary of Burgundy, increased these by the Netherlands, Artois, and Franche Comté; and his son, Philip, acquired Spain also by his marriage with Juana of Castile.

II. *The House of Wittelsbach, or Bavaria*, which was divided into two branches:—

The elder or Palatine branch possessed the *Upper Palatinate* in Southern Bavaria, with Munich for its capital; and the younger the Lower Palatinate, or *Palatinate of the Rhine*, with its capital of Heidelberg.

III. *The House of Saxony*, also divided into two branches:—

The Ernestine or Electoral branch, elder; Wittenberg capital. *The Albertine or Ducal* branch, younger; Dresden and Leipsic.

IV. *The House of Hohenzollern*, also divided into two branches:—

Swabia and Franconia. Frederic, Burggraf of Nuremberg became Markgraf of Brandenburg, and founded the kingdom of Prussia.

France.

In France the Huguenot wars were devastating the country, under the ambitious instigation of Catherine de Medici, and the inefficient carelessness of her sons Charles IX. and Henri III. These miserable differences culminated in the awful massacre of St. Bartholomew, August 24, 1572; soon to be followed by the revolt of Paris, the death of Henri III., and the installation of

Massacre
of St.
Barthol-
omew.

the House of Bourbon in the person of Henri IV. of Na- ~~Henri IV.~~
varre. With the aid of his able Minister Rosny, Baron
de Sully, Henri IV. made a noble effort to recover France
from her misfortunes, and to replace her in a position of
peace and commercial prosperity; but Ravaillac's mur-
derous knife too soon ended his brilliant career (1602).

In *England* the House of Tudor was represented by ^{England.}
Henry VIII., Mary and Elizabeth. The great struggle ^{Henry}
for reformation which marks all the central countries of ^{VIII.}
Europe was also carried on in England.

CHAPTER XXX.

MODERN HISTORY.

Maximilian I.,
1493.

WHEN Frederic III. died in 1493, his weak, careless rule of fifty-three years had left the country in a state of dissension and feud, out of which it was an herculean task to construct such a monarchy as Maximilian I. dreamt of, reviving the ambition of Charlemagne, (by which the whole of Central Europe was to form one vast united kingdom, and the imperial eagle of Rome and Germany was to be at the head of an equal sovereignty.)

First
Marriage.

Maximilian, "the last of the knights," or "the Penniless," is the name bestowed on this tall, handsome young scion of the Hapsburg House, from his courage, daring love of adventure, and chivalrous high-mindedness, personal beauty, and majestic form. The Emperor Max was beloved by all Germany, and remembered as the last star of a falling House. At nineteen he married the lovely, golden-haired Princess Mary of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Bold, who had lost his life in the unfortunate war against the Swiss. Through her Maximilian became possessed of the Netherlands and Burgundy. Four years after the marriage, Mary died of injuries caused by a fall from her horse whilst out hunting, leaving a little son, afterwards Philip I. of Spain.

1482.

1493.

In 1493, Maximilian was called to the monarchy of Austria, and elected Emperor of Germany in the same year; but even after his accession his love of adventure was constantly placing him in personal danger. Throughout Tyrol he was renowned as a chamois

hunter, and it was on one of these expeditions that he found himself separated from his followers, and arrived at a spot from which there was no possibility of moving either forwards or backwards. Below him yawned a fearful abyss, above him the inaccessible precipice known as the "Martinswand". Far down beneath him were people gazing in horror, with tears rolling down their cheeks, at the peril of their beloved Emperor; but none daring enough to attempt a rescue. Not until fifty-two hours had elapsed was Maximilian released from his formidable position by the boldness of an experienced chamois hunter, who let down a rope to him from above. Many stories are related of the romantic rashness and daring of this notable man.

For twelve years after Mary of Burgundy's death, Maximilian remained a widower; and then he married for a second time Maria Bianca, daughter of the Duke of Sforza of Milan—a cold, proud woman, who never won the real love of Maximilian; but the marriage drew him into Italian politics. Second Marriage.

In Germany he did his utmost to promote peace and safety. "Fist-right" was finally abolished, and courts of justice were everywhere established to supersede the old rule of self-defence by might.

The country was subdivided into circles for the better preservation of law and order. Circles.

He introduced the system of the letterpost, and the first postal communication took place between Vienna and Brussels in the year 1516, under the conduct of Count Thurn and Taxis (by birth an Italian), whose successors later on received the title of "Imperial Post-master," and held it till 1866. Letter-post, 1516.

Maximilian also bettered the condition of the army by establishing standing infantry troops under the name of "Landsknechte".

The rooted desire of the Emperor's heart was the enlargement of his Empire; and accordingly he was glad to give his only son, Philip I. (the Handsome) in marriage to Juana of Castile, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain; so that Philip became the heir not only of the Archdukedom of Austria, with its elective claim to the Empire of Germany, but also of Spain, the Netherlands, and the Two Sicilies, Sardinia, and the newly discovered countries of Peru, Brazil, and Mexico. On Philip's early death, his elder son, Charles, inherited the Hapsburg kingdoms of Germany and Spain; and the younger son, Ferdinand, was given in marriage by his grandfather Maximilian to Anna, sister of King Ludwig II. of Hungary (I. of Bohemia), thus giving Ferdinand a claim to those two kingdoms also.

1516.

The visionary plan of Maximilian of driving the Turks out of Europe never came to a fulfilment, for he failed to secure sufficient finances from the surrounding nations, or to stir them up to enough enthusiasm to carry out his project. The end of his life is marked by the work of the Reformation, bringing into notice Martin Luther's spirited denunciation of Romish errors, and vehement protests against Papal dominion.

Diet of
Augsburg.

The Diet of Augsburg, convoked by Maximilian, when Luther was confronted by the Papal Nuncio, Cardinal Cajetano, and forced to escape for his life, was the last public act of Maximilian's life.

He caught a fever on his return journey, which was increased by an imprudent meal on melons, and he died at Wels, from which place his body was brought to Weiner-Neustadt, and interred in front of the altar, so that the priest should stand over his breast whilst consecrating the Host. In the Castle of Innsbruck can be seen the magnificent monument designed by Maximilian himself, but left unfinished; with bas-reliefs represent-

1519.

ing scenes from his own life, beginning with his marriage with Mary of Burgundy, to the marriage of his son, Philip, with Juana of Spain.

On the death of the Emperor Maximilian in 1519, the ^{1519.} Kings of France, Spain, and England (François I., Charles (I. or) V., and Henry VIII.) presented themselves as candidates for the German throne; the first two using all manner of intrigues, and sacrificing enormous sums of money to gain the good-will of the Diet.

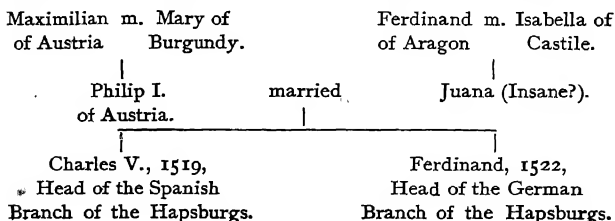
But the electors, fearing too great a balance of power, put them all aside, and elected Frederic the Wise, Elector of Saxony. Feeling, however, that Germany required a powerful prince—supported by the frontier countries of Austria, Bohemia and Hungary at its head, in order successfully to check the invasions of the Turks—Frederic persuaded the electors to nominate Charles I. of Spain, grandson of Maximilian, as Charles V. of Germany.

CHAPTER XXXI.

CHARLES V.

Charles
V., 1519.

CHARLES V., grandson of Maximilian, and son of Philip the Handsome and Juana of Castile, was born in 1500, at Ghent, in the Netherlands, where he was brought up and educated till the age of sixteen, when he was proclaimed King of Castile and Aragon on the death of Ferdinand the Catholic. He had none of the artistic tastes or talents of display which seemed to be the very life itself of his great contemporary, François I. of France. He was active and industrious, working hard at whatever he undertook, and taking a part in all deliberations of his council—a quiet, grave, long-faced, under-jawed, studious man. He inherited such vast dominions as to give rise to the well-known boast that “the sun never set on his Empire”. Besides Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, Styria, Carinthia, and Tyrol, inherited from his father, he had also Spain, the Two Sicilies, Sardinia, and the rich newly discovered lands in America from his Spanish mother and grandfather, and the Netherlands and Burgundy in right of his grandmother. To these were added the imperial crown of Germany and Italy by election.



In 1522 Charles resigned the eastern kingdom of Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and Tyrol to his brother, Ferdinand.

At the news of the election of Charles V., François I. of France—disappointed in his hopes of becoming the first man in Europe—resolved to revenge himself on the successful competitor. This was the origin of the incessant rivalry between the two brilliant men, and other motives were not wanting to make a serious quarrel. François I. desired to have Naples and Navarre given up to him, whilst Charles V. laid claim to Milan as a fief of the Empire, and to Burgundy in right of his grandmother; moreover, each declared he was defending the peace of Europe against the other. The result of the dispute greatly depended upon which side the various countries would range themselves as allies. Henry VIII. proudly exclaimed: “The one whom I defend will win the day!” François and Charles both eagerly appealed to him for aid. The former unwisely, however, roused Henry VIII.’s jealousy by the pomp displayed at the “Field of the Cloth of Gold”; whilst Charles, with greater acumen, crossed to England, and paid a visit to the proud king in person. He won over the powerful Cardinal Wolsey to his side by promising him the Papal tiara. Wolsey, in return, insisted that his master should be reinstated in his former possessions in France.

Field of
the Cloth
of Gold,
June,
1520.

Pope Leo X. (Medici), who played an important part in the struggle, negotiated with both rivals in turns; but ended by siding with Charles V., for fear the Emperor should support the Lutherans in Germany against him.

François I.—abandoned by England and the Papacy—held out his hand to the Protestants and the Turks, as the two declared enemies of the Emperor, although he had no real sympathy with either the one or the other. A close coalition between France, Protestants and

Turks would have presented almost insurmountable obstacles to Charles V.; but such diverse elements could never hope to be united for any length of time, and Charles comforted himself by feeling sure that he would find it easy to separate the allies, and so deal with his enemies singly one after the other in turn.

Campaign
in Italy.

François I. had for allies Venice, the Swiss, and the Turks.

Charles V. counted on the Pope and Henry VIII.

1522.

Italy was the principal seat of war.

The French began unfortunately. The Swiss mercenaries—not having received any of the payment promised by the French king for their services—mutinied, and demanded their “money, freedom, or battle”. The French general, Lautrec, led them on hurriedly to attack the enemy, who were stationed in a formidable position at Bicocca, near Milan. Crushed by the German artillery, the Swiss were defeated, and obliged to give up Milan to the Emperor.

Bicocca.

1523.

The following year François received another check by the treachery of the Constable de Bourbon, who betrayed the interests of France, and went over to the side of Charles V., combining with him and Henry VIII. to dismember the kingdom of France.

1524.

In the spring of 1524 the Imperialists were reinforced by 6000 Germans, and Bourbon then took the offensive. A desperate struggle took place on the banks of the Sesia in Piedmont, which cost the life of the illustrious French knight, Bayard—“*le chevalier sans peur et sans reproche*”.

The Emperor then gave orders for the invasion of France. Bourbon besieged Marseilles, but was forced to make a disorderly retreat over the Alps, closely followed by the French army under the personal command of François I. This time the French entered Milan without opposition; but instead of vigorously pursuing his advan-

tage, François detached 12,000 men from his army to go and take possession of the kingdom of Naples, whilst he himself undertook the siege of Pavia, not reflecting that he was thus giving time for the three clever imperial generals—Bourbon, Lannoy, and Pescara—to assemble fresh troops—far superior to his in numbers—*behind* him.

With these they dashed upon his lines at Pavia, 24th February, 1525. A terrible battle ensued; and François, obliged to defend himself on foot, was wounded in several places. At last, relinquishing his sword to Lannoy, he wrote in brief words to his mother: "All is lost, madame, save honor".

Pavia
Feb.,
1525.

Carried to Madrid as a prisoner, François hoped for at least fair treatment at the hands of his conqueror. But Charles kept him in prison, and treated him so severely that he became quite ill, and even at one time thought of abdicating his throne.

Charles at last consented to conclude a Treaty at Madrid, by which his rival gave up all his rights to Naples and Milan, ceded Burgundy to the Emperor, promised to replace the Constable de Bourbon in his command, and gave up his two sons as hostages.

Treaty of
Madrid,
1526.

Before concluding the Treaty of Madrid, François I. had protested secretly against the ill treatment he had received from his enemies. Scarcely had he entered his kingdom when he refused to give up Burgundy, excusing himself by saying that a king had no right to alienate the country without the consent of the States-General. Pope Clement VII. (Medici)—who would have liked to see the overthrow of Spain—released François from his parole, and a "holy league" was entered into between France,¹ England, and most of the Italian States. But

¹ Henry VIII. had become alarmed at the increasing power of Germany, and drew back from Charles. Italy, fearing Spain, turned once more to France and offered assistance to François.

Siege of
Rome,
1527.

the coalition lacked energy. François was not sufficiently prompt in action. Rome was besieged by a band of German mercenaries in the pay of Charles V., led by the Constable de Bourbon and the former condottiere, Georges von Freundsberg, carrying, as it is said, a chain of gold round his neck with which to strangle the Pope! Bourbon gave the order of assault, but was killed himself; and his soldiers, left to their own devices, gave themselves up to the most horrible pillage. All Europe protested indignantly against the Emperor, when the news of the sack of Rome reached them; but Charles denied the accusation, saying he knew nothing of it. At the same time, he neither punished any one concerned, nor put a stop to the violent outrages following the siege.

Treaty of
Cambrai,
1559.

At last, tired with the struggle, the King of France concluded the Treaty of Cambrai, which leaves an indelible stain on his reputation. The Emperor did not exact the cession of Burgundy, but François renounced all claim to Milan and Naples, and completely abandoned his allies in Italy, leaving a fatal renown for perfidy, and losing forever the confidence of the Italians.

Nothing then remained to the Pope but reluctantly to reconcile himself with Charles V., and crown him Emperor and King of Italy at Bologna, which he agreed to do, on condition that the Medici should be re-established in Florence under the title of dukes.

CHAPTER XXXII.

DURING this time Solyman the Turk invaded Hungary, and his fleets devastated the coasts of Italy. A cry of indignation was raised against the King of France, who had called the Turks into Europe, and a general war broke out.

Whilst Charles V. and Henry VIII invaded France, the allies of François—James V. of Scotland and Solyman the Magnificent—invaded England and Hungary respectively.

But the Emperor became uneasy at the progress of the Lutherans in Germany during his absence in other countries; and fearing that his Empire would be disintegrated with all the confusion and strife, he signed the Peace of Crespy, in the north of France, near Lâon, by which François I. kept Savoy, and Charles V. Milan. Henry VIII. also made peace, and died shortly afterwards, François I. only surviving him one year.

The reign of Solyman the Magnificent, 1520–1566, is a striking epoch in Turkish history. He inaugurated his reign by taking Belgrade and Rhodes; when Charles V. gave to the brave Knights of Rhodes the Island of Malta, from which stronghold they continued to keep the Turks at bay in the Mediterranean, and where they were afterwards known as the Knights of Malta.

The Sultan next attacked Hungary, and won a great victory at Mohatz, in which the distinguished King Ludwig II. perished. As he left no child, the crown passed to his brother-in-law, Ferdinand of Austria, brother of

Charles V.; and this is the origin of the rights of the House of Austria over Bohemia and Hungary. Ferdinand took immediate possession of Bohemia; but before he could do the same in Hungary, he had to encounter strong opposition from the Turks, who once more invaded the country, and even advanced to besiege Vienna.

Siege of
Vienna,
1530.

Twenty times the terrible Janissaries¹ led the attack, and strove to gain an entrance into the town; twenty times they were repulsed by the gallant garrison, and the enraged Sultan was forced at last to give up the siege.

Solyman
and
Charles
V., 1532.
Turkish
Inroads.

Two years afterwards, Solyman the Magnificent again took the field against Austria, at the head of 200,000 men. Charles V. met him with 100,000, and for the first time the two renowned warriors met in person. Never since the Crusades had the Christians assembled in such forces. Lutherans and Roman Catholics alike joined hands against the Mussulmans. Nevertheless, little result followed. At the approach of winter, Solyman retired to his capital, Constantinople, carrying with him a large number of unfortunate prisoners as slaves; and the greater part of Southern Hungary remained in the power of the Turks. The Austrians only kept Northern Hungary, Presberg, and its environs.

Scarcely had the Mussulman invasion been arrested in Hungary when new depredations by the Turks on the shores of the Mediterranean gave cause for a fresh expedition to the relief of the Christians.

Two brothers, named Horuc and Chereddin Barbarossa, had made themselves masters of Algiers and Tunis; and, encouraged by their success, they continued to ravage the shores of Italy and Spain.

Charles V. undertook the personal command of two

¹Janissaries (*Jiëni tchéri*, new soldiers)—an order of infantry in the Turkish army; originally young Christian prisoners trained to arms by Orcan, father of Amurath I.

expeditions against them. In the first he captured Galetta. Tunis surrendered, and 20,000 Christian galley-slaves were delivered from slavery and taken back to their country at the expense of the Emperor, making all Europe ring with the praises of Charles V. Capture of Tunis, 1535.

Six years later the Emperor made a similar attempt on Algiers; but such a tempest arose that many of the ships were engulfed with all on board—men, arms, and provisions—and Charles had some difficulty in getting back to his own kingdom in safety. Attempt on Algiers, 1541.

During the last years of Solyman's life he was wholly absorbed by gloomy domestic tragedies, which owed their origin to his favorite wife, Roxelana, and her favorites; and Charles V. had no more to fear from his invasions, but was able to turn his entire attention towards the great question of religious reform then agitating all Europe.

THE REFORMATION IN GERMANY.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

ALL attempts at a general religious reformation during the Middle Ages by the Vaudois, Wicliff, John Huss, and the great Councils of Constance and Basel, had miserably failed, and the abuses and disorders of the Church were constantly on the increase. The evil had become so crying, and the discontent so universal, that any slight accident was sufficient to cause an explosion.

Savonarola.

The seed of reformed doctrines was sown by such men as Lorenzo Valla and Savonarola at Florence, Reuchlin at Tübingen, Ulrich von Hütten, and the famous Erasmus of Rotterdam, professor at Basel (of whom it is said, "Erasmus laid the egg of Reformation, and Luther hatched it"), and it only needed the dogmatic force and indomitable courage of Luther to awaken it to active life.

MARTIN LUTHER.

Martin Luther.

In the village of Möra in Thuringia there lived in a poor miner's hut a man named Luther, with his wife Margaret Lindeman. Both were earnest, quiet people; but finding it difficult to earn a living in the country, they moved to Eisleben in Saxony, and settled themselves there; and on November 10th, 1483, a little son was born, whom they named Martin. Shortly after his birth the family moved once more to Mansfeld, where at last things prospered better with them, and the father made himself so much respected that he was chosen to

Birth,
1483.

the office of town-councillor. Little Martin proved to be a clever, diligent child, and his father sent him early to school, in bad weather carrying him there himself on his shoulders. The boy made such rapid progress that at the age of fourteen he was promoted to the higher school of Magdeburg, and later on to that of Eisenach. Being very poor, Martin was obliged to earn his bread by singing in the streets before the houses of rich families in Eisenach; and on one occasion he attracted the attention of Frau Cotta, who took him into her house, and cared for him for some years as if he had been her own son.

At eighteen years of age he went to study in the University of Erfurt; and from thence he paid occasional visits to his parents. One day he was returning to the city accompanied by his great friend Alexius, when they were overtaken by a terrible storm of thunder and lightning, and Alexius was struck dead by his side. Martin was greatly overcome by the shock, and exclaimed, "Had I been in his place, I should now be before the Judgment Seat of God! How would it then have been with me? I must lead a better life in future." On arriving at Erfurt, he went straight to the Augustinian cloister and took the vows, thinking that, once a monk, all his sins would be forgiven him. The cloister-life was very rough; he was put to the hardest work, and was obliged to carry the begging-sack for the community round the town. On one of these expeditions he discovered a copy of the Bible chained to a desk, and read it with the deepest interest and reverence. He was filled with delight and joy, and after two years of thoughtful study and meditation, he determined to be ordained priest. Frederic the Wise, Elector of Saxony, had just founded the University of Wittenberg, and, University of Wittenberg, 1508. hearing of the learning of Luther, he promoted him

Melancthon.

to be Professor of Philosophy, and pastor of the Castle Church, Luther being at the time twenty-six years of age. He found a friend and fellow-worker in a young student named Schwarzerde, who, according to the habit of the time, translated his name "black-earth" into Greek, and is known to us as Melancthon. He had been educated by his uncle Reuchlin, the famous master of classical languages and philosophy. At sixteen Melancthon had published a Greek Grammar; at seventeen he was giving lectures in the University of Tübingen, and at twenty-one was called to be a Professor at Wittemberg. The characters of the two young men were admirably adapted to make them friends. Each formed the complement of the other; Martin Luther was a man of action, Melancthon, a man of letters, full of thought and meditation; Luther was the Apostle, Melancthon, the Theologian of the Reformation.

Indulgences,
1517.

At this time Pope Leo X. proclaimed the sale of indulgences, and sent the monk Tetsel round the country to sell them; he carried two satchels strapped round his neck, one containing the indulgences, and the other money. When Luther preached confession and repentance for sins to the people, their reply was, "We have already got our absolution from Tetsel, and our sins are all forgiven." Luther could not endure this, and he wrote out ninety-five Theses against the errors of the Papacy, and fastened them to the church door at Wittemberg, October 31st, 1517. Like wild-fire the news spread throughout Germany and Europe. The Pope summoned Luther before him; but his powerful friends, the Emperor Maximilian I. and Frederic the Wise, Elector of Saxony, would not allow him to take the journey to Rome; they arranged instead that Cardinal Cajetano, the Papal legate, should meet Luther at Augsburg. No good result, however, attended the conference, al-

Ninety-five
Theses,
1517.

Cardinal
Cajetano,
1518.

though some say that Miltitz, the Pope's chamberlain, exacted a conditional promise from Luther that he would keep silence on the disputed points.

The following year saw the death of the Emperor Maximilian, and the accession of his grandson, Charles V. At Leipsic, Luther and his colleague, Carlstadt, were confronted with a formidable opponent in Dr. Eck, who ^{Eck at Leipsic, 1519} accused them of sharing the errors of the Hussites, and warned them that the Hussites had been condemned as heretics at the Council of Constance. After repeated discussions and stormy accusations from Luther against the Papacy, which he called a "devil's nest," Luther was formally excommunicated. He burnt the Bull containing the sentence openly before the students of Wittenberg, and defied the Pope. ^{Burning the Bull. 1520.}

CHAPTER XXXIV.

Council of
Worms,
1521.

THE reigning Emperor Charles V.—grieved at the contest, and desirous to make peace—summoned a conclave of princes and bishops to meet at Worms. On receiving the invitation to confront his opponents at that place, Luther's reply was, "He could not unsay what he had already stated and written; but that he would attend the Diet if a safe-conduct were granted to him". This was promised; but his friends were uneasy on his account, and begged him to remember the burning of John Huss, and to desist from the journey. Luther's bold reply was, "If they were to light a fire which should reach as far as from Wittemberg to Worms and as high as the heavens, still I would go!" Alone with one friend, he started in a carriage, the imperial herald riding in front. Half way he was once more implored to give up the dangerous expedition; but he only reiterated, "If there were as many devils in Worms as there are tiles on the house-top, still I would go!" He occupied part of the journey by composing the well-known German hymn, "Eine feste Burg ist unser Gott". Arrived at Worms, Luther was conducted to the Council Chamber, where the Emperor and his advisers with twelve hundred learned men were collected. On a table lay copies of Luther's works. After a long and complicated discussion, he was called upon to recant, and he asked for twenty-four hours for consideration. This being granted, the next day he was returning to the Council when General Georges von Freundsberg tapped him on the shoulder, exclaiming,

"Little monk! little monk! you are going in for a harder conflict than either I myself or any of my officers have ever engaged in; but if you have made up your mind that your doctrines are true, go on in God's name, and be assured that He will never forsake you!" In a speech lasting two hours, Luther set forth his views; and when his judges again insisted on his recantation, he made his celebrated reply, "If this work is man's work it will fall by itself; but if it is from God nothing can destroy it. I neither can nor dare retract what I believe to be the truth as revealed in Holy Scripture; on this I take my stand; I can do no otherwise, so help me God. Amen." The Council was ended, and Luther was allowed to depart; but the "ban of the Empire" was read over him (*i.e.*, he was outlawed, and after the space of twenty-one days, any one would be free to put the dangerous monk to death). On his way home Luther was seized by a band of armed men, said to have been commissioned by his friend, the Elector of Saxony, to place him in a position of safety. He was carried off to the Castle of Wartburg in the mountains near Eisenach, Wartburg. where he lived for nine months, concealed in the dress of a common knight, and called "Junker Georg". He occupied a great portion of his time in making a translation of the New Testament into German.

The outrageous conduct of his friend Carlstadt, and other extreme reformers in Wittenberg, did no good to Luther's cause; and when Luther heard that they were breaking images, burning books, etc., he left his retreat at Wartburg, and once more appeared at Wittenberg to restore order.

More alarming, however, than the outbreak at Wittenberg was the rebellion of the German peasants, who, Peasants' War, 1525 to 1527. mistaking the freedom of religion promised to them by Luther for the freedom of their vested rights, armed them-

selves and declared war. In vain Luther attempted to bring them to reason. All was useless; they went from place to place, breaking into convents, monasteries, castles, and perpetrating horrible cruelties. The princes assembled an army against them, and they were subdued at last, but not without a war lasting two years, and the destruction of 30,000 peasants.

**Marriage
of Luther,
1524.**

Meanwhile Luther continued to live as pastor and professor at Wittenberg. In 1524 he had thrown off his monk's robe and married Catherine von Bora, a nun. Six children were born to them. He worked steadily for the Reformation, compiled two catechisms, a Church service, and a collection of hymns, to which he added many beautiful ones of his own; he also made a translation of the Old Testament.

**Protestant
Princes.**

Several of the German princes, amongst whom were Frederic the Wise, Elector of Saxony; Philip, Landgraf of Hesse; the Duke of Mecklenburg, and Albert, Grandmaster of the Teutonic Knights and Duke of Brandenburg, became Lutheran. But his enemies were powerful, and continually wearied the Emperor with complaints and accusations.

CHAPTER XXXV.

CHARLES V., finding the cares of his gigantic dominions too much for one person to superintend, had delegated the Eastern Kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia with Austria to his brother Ferdinand in 1522, and himself chiefly resided in Spain. Division of the Kingdom

Troubled, however, by the ceaseless conflicts on religious matters, which kept Europe in a ferment, and hearing that the Turks made constant inroads on Hungary, Charles summoned a Diet at Speier (Spire), to discuss measures for keeping them in check; with the idea of smoothing down every difference, and uniting all parties in one common cause.—a Crusade against the Turks. Against this measure the Lutheran princes and fourteen imperial free cities entered such a stern protest that they earned the name, so frequently misused in later times, of "Protestants". Diet of Speier, 1529. Name "Protestant".

Another Council of Augsburg was convoked for the next year, at which Charles V. presided in person. He strove in every possible way to bring about an understanding. The Lutherans were allowed to speak freely in favor of their religious creed. They desired to show that their doctrines were those of no new religion, but only the casting out of the errors of their former creed; and for this purpose Melancthon, the gentle friend of Luther, drew up the celebrated "Confession of Augsburg". It is said that his opponents insisted that the reading of this confession should take place in a little chapel, which only held 120 persons. The weather, how- Council of Augsburg, 1530.

League of
Schmal-
kalde, 1531.
Nüremberg
League.

ever, being warm and the windows open, the voice of the reader was clearly audible to the vast concourse of people outside, who were astonished at the enunciation of the new doctrines thus heard for the first time. The Confession was condemned by the Diet and the Emperor; but the determined attitude of the Protestants caused Charles to waver in his verdict, not liking to estrange so many of his powerful subjects. The Protestant princes on their side, dismayed at the threats of the Emperor, and seeing that nothing would now serve their purpose but war, entered into a *League at Schmalkalde* (in Thuringia) for mutual protection. In opposition to this League the Roman Catholic princes formed the *Nüremberg League*. François I., King of France, offered to join the Protestant League of Schmalkalde out of hatred to Charles V.; but Luther indignantly refused, declaring that "the Empire would be distracted, and it and the Gospel would go to wreck together".

Religious
Peace of
Nürem-
berg,
1532.

At this time Charles V. wanted to crown his brother Ferdinand "King of the Romans," but he encountered quite an unexpected opposition from the Roman Catholic States, on which he had always reckoned as his firm supporters. This circumstance, combined with the fear of fresh inroads by the Turks, decided the Emperor to put off for the moment any definite decision on the religious question. A treaty was signed at Nüremberg, called the *Religious Peace*, when the Emperor offered toleration to the Protestants on condition that they would help him in his war with the Turks, and give their votes for the election of his brother Ferdinand as King of the Romans. The Protestants promised their help, and Charles undertook the expedition, which ended in the repulse of Solymán the Magnificent in Austria. Thus momentarily delivered from the Turks, Charles thought he might break faith with the Lutherans; but

the attacks of the Kings of France on his western frontier obliged him to renew the promise of peace with the Lutheran party. During the ten years which followed, the Emperor, absorbed by war, set aside altogether the religious question, and the Reformation—left to itself—made great progress.

Not only in Germany, but throughout Europe, the doctrines were spread by such able men as Ulrich Zwingli of Zürich in Switzerland, Jean Chauvin (Calvin) in France and Geneva, Lefèvre and Farel in France and Neuchâtel, Cranmer and Edward VI. in England, John Knox (a disciple of Calvin) in Scotland, Gustavus Vasa in Sweden, etc. Other Reformers.

The *Lutheran* doctrines spread throughout the hereditary States of Hapsburg, Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and Bohemia, and in the German portion of Hungary and Transylvania, where they became mingled with the former doctrines of the Hussites. Lutherans.

Calvinism was generally adopted by the Swiss, French, and Magyars. The Calvinists and Lutherans separated in 1561, when the former rejected some of the Articles of the Confession of Augsburg. In France they were known as Huguenots. Calvinists.

Poland furnished an asylum for both Lutherans and Calvinists; whilst Prussia, the land of the Teutonic knights, Livonia and Courland, accepted the Lutheran Reformation in 1525, following the example of the Grand-master of the Teutonic Order, Albert of Brandenburg. Huguenots.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

Peace of
Crespy,
1545.

Council of
Trent, 1545
to 1563.

Great
Schism,
1546.

Death of
Luther,
Feb. 18,
1546.

IN 1545, Charles V. concluded a treaty of five years with the Turks, and terminated the war with François I. of France at the *Peace of Crespy*, so that nothing prevented him from turning his attention vigorously to the Reformation. He persuaded Pope Paul III. to call the Council of Trent, which he hoped would put an end to all religious difficulties and stop the general abuses in the Church. But the Protestants refused to appear. It was not such a Council as they desired. They wished for an assembly which should be composed of equal numbers of theologians on both sides, and an impartial tribunal not presided over by the Pope. The Council of Trent was entirely composed of Roman Catholic prelates, acting under the direction of the Papal See, and expecting the Protestants to appear before them—not to deliberate—but to be judged by them. Their doctrines being then condemned by the Council of Trent, the Lutherans refused to submit to the sentence, and the Great Schism of the sixteenth century took place.

Luther did not live to see the war, which he had sadly foretold must take place. He died after a short illness at his native town of Eisleben. As he himself said, "The world is weary of me, and I of the world". He was a warm-hearted, affectionate man, blunt in manner, and speaking out too freely at times, but always to the point; and his noble courage, singleness of heart, and generous fervor for religion made him rank as the greatest of all reformers¹. His followers, taking their names

¹ Great as Luther was as a reformer, we should recollect that he made two great mistakes which cut at the root of Church

from their leaders, divided into three principal branches, Lutherans, Zwinglians, and Calvinists. The Luther-^{Lutherans.} ans still preserved the name of Protestants; the Calvin-^{Protes-} ists called themselves the Reformed; the followers of Melancthon are known as Philippists.^{tants.}
^{Reformed.}
^{Philippists.}

As the Protestant princes refused to submit to the Council of Trent, or to dissolve the League of Schmalkalde, war was proclaimed in 1546. The leaders of the

Schmalkaldic League, John Frederic, Elector of Saxony, and Philip, Landgraf of Hesse, took the field; but an unexpected defection in their camp weakened the League. Maurice, Duke of Saxony, one of the Schmalkaldic princes, having obtained from the Emperor the

promise of the Electorate of Saxony (which belonged to his cousin the Protestant prince John Frederic), abandoned his co-religionists and entered into an alliance with Charles V. The Protestants, thus betrayed by one of their strongest allies, were unable to resist the imperial forces. The Elector of Saxony was defeated at Mühlberg on the Elbe, made prisoner, judged, and con-

demned to death by Charles V. He only saved his life by abdicating in favor of Maurice, and the electoral dignity thus passed from the elder branch (Ernestine) to the younger branch (Albertine). The Ernestine branch only kept the ducal title, with a small portion of its ancient possessions. As for the unfortunate John Frederic, he had to endure a long and tedious captivity. The Landgraf of Hesse, encouraged by the promises of his son-in-law, Duke Maurice, decided to send in his submission to the Emperor; but the promises made to him

principles: I. He adopted the doctrine of justification by faith alone. II. He set aside the succession of consecrated bishops and clergy of fifteen hundred years, and chose to assert his personal consecration as valid, setting aside all ecclesiastical form and order in favor of his own views and desires.

were never kept, he was treated even worse than the Elector, and dragged about from place to place in the suite of Charles V.

In spite of his severity towards the leaders of the reformed party, Charles did not prevent the Protestants from celebrating their sacred rites; nor would he allow the inhuman Duke of Alva to exhume the body of Luther, saying, "Let him sleep in peace; he has already met with his judge; I do not make war with the dead". The Emperor earnestly desired for his own interests to put an end to the schism, and re-establish unity in Germany. To this end he pressed the Protestants to recognize the Council of Trent. But even Pope Benedict XIV., who began to fear the growing power of Charles V., turned against him and kept on proroguing the Council on futile pretexts.

Interim or
Diet of
Augsburg,
1548.

Angered with the Pope for his defection, Charles resolved to put an end to the question. He called a *Diet at Augsburg* in 1548, made a provisional convention, by which he allowed to the Protestants the Communion in both kinds, and the marriage of priests, but insisted on their otherwise submitting to the power of the Pope. Both parties demurred at this decision. The Pope was indignant that the Emperor should meddle with his spiritual affairs; the Protestants declared that the most essential parts of their creed were denied to them. All these events caused the greatest sensation throughout Germany. Even the Roman Catholic princes themselves saw with anxiety that the Emperor was really abusing his authority; and the general feeling of irritation was even shared by Charles's brother, Ferdinand, King of Hungary and Bohemia, whose rights Charles was proposing to set aside in favor of his own son, Philip.

Philip of
Austria.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA

CHAPTER XXXVII.

LAST YEARS OF CHARLES V.

No prince, however, was so impatient of the imperial despotism as Maurice of Saxony, although he owed his powerful position to the favoritism of Charles V. Seeing the necessity of reinstating himself in the eyes of his co-religionists, who attributed all their misfortunes to his defection, he resolved to side again with the Reformation and liberty in Germany. He therefore made a secret alliance with Henri II. of France (son and successor of François I.), by which it was arranged that Henri should receive the three frontier bishoprics of Lorraine—Toul, Metz, and Verdun—and make himself master of them, whilst Maurice should march into Tyrol. The latter possessed the entire confidence of Charles V., who had confided to him the management of the siege of Magdeburg, and thus placed a large portion of the army completely under his control. The Emperor was at Innsbruck, unsuspecting of any evil. Suddenly Maurice threw off the mask, and published a manifesto, declaring that he took up arms against the Emperor for three reasons—

Revolt of Maurice of Saxony, 1552.

1. To secure the Protestant religion.
2. To maintain the German constitution.
3. To deliver the Landgraf of Hesse, his father-in-law, from prison.

At the head of a large body of troops, Maurice hurried by forced marches to surprise the Emperor at Innsbruck. A mutiny amongst the soldiers, who demanded their pay, delayed Maurice a few hours, and just allowed time for Charles V., ill and suffering as he was with gout, to escape. In the middle of the night, and in pouring rain, he was carried in a litter over the steep and intricate mountain paths which led into Carinthia, and thus saved from actually falling into the hands of his rebellious subjects. But this determined *coup de main* on Maurice's part forced the Emperor to come to terms, and a peace was concluded at *Passau*. The captive princes were set at liberty, the Landgraf of Hesse received back his estates, and the sons of John Frederic were allowed to retain his domains in Thuringia. One essential feature of the treaty was that the States which had subscribed to the Confession of Augsburg (not other Protestants) were granted complete liberty of life and creed.

Treaty of
Passau,
1552.

Three years later, the peace was confirmed at another *Diet at Augsburg*, when the same States received not only liberty of religion but also the same political rights as the Roman Catholics, and were once more put in possession of the ecclesiastical revenues of which they had been deprived.

1555.
Religious
Peace of
Augsburg.

For some time, an adverse statute called the "Ecclesiastical Reserve" was retained against these Protestant rights, but a few years afterwards it was cancelled at the Treaty of Westphalia (1648).

After the Treaties of Passau and Augsburg, the Emperor tried to win back the three bishoprics from the grasp of Henri II., but he met with such a determined resistance at Metz, from the Duke of Guise, who was defending the place, that he was obliged to retire, exclaiming, "I see clearly that fortune does not favor old

people!" and Metz remained in the hands of the French till 1871. So many reverses completely overwhelmed Charles V. He saw his vast projects making shipwreck one after the other. On the one hand, he had neither crushed France nor subjugated the Turks; and on the other, he had neither annihilated the Reformation nor raised the imperial power. With advancing years, enfeebled by sorrows and disease, the old Emperor longed for a little repose. He abdicated in favor of his son Philip II., who entered into possession of Spain, the Two Sicilies, Milan, the Low Countries, Franche-Comté, as well as the newly discovered American colonies; whilst his brother Ferdinand kept the Austrian estates, and received the imperial crown of Germany.

Abdication
of Charles
V., 1556.

From this time the House of Hapsburg is divided into two lines: the elder branch, representing the Hapsburgs in Spain; and the younger, the Hapsburgs in Germany. Charles V. retired to the Monastery of San Just, amongst the chestnut groves of Estramadura, where he spent the two last years of his life in devotional exercises, and amusing himself with gardening and watchmaking. On one occasion, having taken untold pains to make two watches work exactly alike, and failing, he exclaimed sadly, "If I cannot succeed in this, how foolish was I to think I could make the minds of a million men think alike!" It is said that he caused his own funeral service to be celebrated, and caught a chill from lying in his coffin. Fever came on, and he died in 1558, at the age of fifty-nine.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

Ferdinand I., 1556. CHARLES V. was followed by his brother, the Emperor Ferdinand I., whose mild and gentle rule made him much beloved by his subjects, in spite of their various nationalities; as was also his son and successor, Maximilian II., called the Peaceful, because he could not bear to engage in warfare.

Maximilian II., 1564.

Quite at the beginning of his reign the old Turkish Sultan, Solyman, the great enemy of all Christendom, once again conceived the idea of seizing Vienna, and took the field with 200,000 men, opening the campaign by a decided march into Hungary. But his advance was checked by the heroic resistance of the Hungarian fortress Szigeth, which held out against him under its bold governor, Count Niklas Zrinyi. Zrinyi's handful of warriors had sworn to support their leader, and share whatever fate might betide him. The town was stormed twenty times, and the little band had shrunk to 100 men; all around lay ruins; the upper castle—their last stronghold—was already in flames. Then Zrinyi, like a second Leonidas, dashed forth at the head of the remnant of his army, flung himself into the midst of the astounded enemy, and with his men died a hero's death "for Emperor and Fatherland". When at last the enemy took possession of the smoking remains of the forsaken castle, the powder magazine caught fire, blew up, and sent 2000 Turks into the air. The damage done to the Turkish forces before Szigeth was irreparable, and Solyman had not even the gratification of living to take possession of the place, for he died two days before the event, in his camp. Solyman's followers were not warlike, and a peace was established which lasted many years.

Turks' Invasion of Hungary, 1566.

Szigeth.

Zrinyi.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

ON Maximilian II.'s death, Rodolf II., his son, as-^{Rodolf II., 1578.}cended the throne; a man full of love for art and science, but too weak in character to control the stormy elements of his kingdom. He had already been proclaimed King of Hungary in 1572, and King of Bohemia in 1575. The struggles between Roman Catholics and Protestants were still disturbing the whole Empire; and Rodolf, perplexed and worried with the various questions which he did not care to enter into, at last surrendered to his brother Matthias the kingdoms of Hungary and Austria. In order not to lose his hold over Bohemia, he took the side of the Protestant cause, and in 1609^{Charter of Liberty, 1609.} proclaimed religious liberty, and gave the inhabitants a charter, called the Charter of Liberty, by which they received permission to build churches and schools, and carry out their religious observances. Bohemia and Silesia were, however, yielded up to his brother in 1611;^{1611.} and just when the Electors had determined to depose Rodolf, he died, and his brother Matthias replaced him as Emperor.

During the reign of Matthias the Protestants of Bohemia went further even than their charter of liberty allowed; and the Protestant dependants of the Archbishop of Prague and of the Abbot of Braunaw, having built some new churches, drew upon themselves the indignation of the Roman Catholics, who pulled down two of them and placed the others under lock and key.

Thirty
Years'
War, 1618.

Ferdinand
II., 1619.

An army was quickly called together to quell the disturbance, and placed under the command of Count Thurm. At this crisis, the Emperor Matthias died, and his cousin, Ferdinand II., King of Hungary and Bohemia, a grandson of Ferdinand I., succeeded him, proving himself at once a powerful and active regent, but a stern Roman Catholic.



CHAPTER XL.

THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

GERMANY had been the first cradle of the Reformation and the principal seat of religious warfare. The division of Charles V.'s dominions weakened the Catholic party, the German States tolerated the Reformation, and Austria gradually accepted it.

There was a violent reaction on the part of the Romanists in Spain, under Philip II., but it was kept somewhat in check by the attitude of the Reformed Church in the Netherlands.

The division of the Empire would have seemed favorable to the balance of power, but Philip II.'s possessions were almost as colossal as his father's, and his ambitious and dominating character caused more anxiety in Europe.

The double nature of political and religious warfare so noticeable in the sixteenth century changed somewhat in the seventeenth, when, although religion was often made the pretext, political interest was really the predominating motive.

The system of absolute monarchy which had begun in the Middle Ages reached its height in the downfall of the feudal system, and the absolutism in France of Louis XIV.'s reign. The same absolutism was attempted in England, but was overthrown by the Revolution.

The idea of European equilibrium was more clearly formalized, and the two powers of Spain and Turkey

which had threatened it in the sixteenth century were distinctly on the decline.

The Scandinavian States (Norway, Sweden and Denmark) began to take a prominent place in history. The Thirty Years' War and the English Revolution are the two great events of the first half of the seventeenth century. To these we may add later the struggle in the North between Sweden, Poland and Russia; but amongst all these the Thirty Years' War holds the most important position. Germany became the centre of diplomatic and military warfare. The war itself was both political and religious. Its origin was, apparently, only the insurrection of one people (Bohemia) against its sovereign, roused by a matter of religious and cruel discord in the centre of the Austrian States; but very soon the question assumed such proportions that all the countries of Europe were drawn into the quarrel, and it became simply a tremendous political struggle for supremacy.

Spain.
Philip II.

In *Spain* and the Netherlands Philip II., the stern, crafty, cold-hearted husband of the English Mary Tudor, ruled with gloomy severity, upholding the Inquisition and carrying on the bloody wars in the Low Countries under Alva's generalship, which resulted in the revolt of the provinces and the later formation of the Dutch Republic. (1713.)

Dutch
Republic.

The seventeenth century in England is marked by the stormy reigns of the Stuarts and the Civil Wars resulting in the Revolution and Restoration, and the establishment of the English Protestant Church.

Saxony.
(Albertine.)

In Germany the position was much what it had been in the last century: the Albertine branch of the House of Saxony had acquired the Electorate, and the German House of Hapsburg was in possession of Bohemia and Northern Hungary.

CHAPTER XLI.

THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

DURING THE REIGNS OF THE EMPERORS MATTHIAS,
FERDINAND II., AND FERDINAND III.

Four Periods.

Thirty
Years'
War, 1618
to 1648.

1618-1623.—(1) Palatine or Bohemian Period.

Frederic, Elector Palatine, the	}	Protestant.
“Winter King” - - - -		
Count Mansfeld - - - -	}	Romanist.
Duke Maximilian of Bavaria - -		
Baron Tilly - - - -		

1625-1629.—(2) Danish Period.

Christian IV. of Denmark - - -	Protestant.
Wallenstein - - - -	Romanist.

Treaty of Lübeck, 1629.

1630-1635.—(3) Swedish Period.

Gustavus Adolphus, the “Snow	}	Protestant.
King” - - - -		
Oxenstiern, Swedish Minister - -	}	Romanist.
Wallenstein and Tilly - - -		

Treaty of Prague, 1635.

1635-1648.—(4) French-Swedish Period.

Torstenon, Swedish General	-	-	Protestant.
Max Piccolomini, Imperial General	-	}	Romanist.
Marshal Turenne, French General	-		

Treaty of Westphalia, 1648.

First
Period.
Bohemian
or Palatine
1618.

The Peace of Augsburg concluded in 1555 was only an outward one. Deep down in their hearts was nourished the most implacable animosity between the Romanists and the Lutherans; and at last it burst forth in the year 1618, in the terrible Thirty Years' War which laid waste the whole Empire of Germany.

It began in Bohemia, where the Roman Catholics had pulled down a new church built by the Protestants, and placed others under lock and key.

The Lutherans appealed to Ferdinand II. as Emperor of Germany and King of Bohemia; but being a Romanist himself, he returned them only a stern reprimand. It was given out that this answer emanated not from the king, but from two of his ministers; upon which the enraged Lutherans sent messengers to the castle who threw the two councillors out of a window eighty feet from the ground. Falling, as it happened, upon a heap of rubbish, the unfortunate men escaped with their lives, though terribly injured; but this occurrence gave rise to the war.

1619.

Ferdinand II. was furious, and resolved to punish his refractory subjects. The Bohemians declared they would no longer tolerate Ferdinand as their king, and elected in his place the Protestant, Frederic, Prince Palatine, son-in-law of James I. of England, and he was actually crowned at Prague as Frederic V. His triumph did not last long. The Emperor sent an army against him under Duke Maximilian of Bavaria, the leader of the "Catholic League," and a battle was fought on the White Mountain near Prague, where Frederic was defeated, and forced to fly to Brandenburg; his enemies derisively calling him the "Winter King," because he had only succeeded in reigning one winter.

Frederic V.

The Bohemian general, Count Mansfeld, however, still dared to lift up his sword against the Emperor, and

on hearing that his army numbered 20,000 men, Frederic ventured back once more with hopes revived; but the great general of the Roman Catholic League, Baron Tilly, was too strong for him, and he once more retired, Tilly this time to Holland.

Baron Tilly was a man dreaded alike by friends and foes. His name was used by nurses to frighten children, and by priests to terrify their enemies. The appearance of his thin, long face, terrible eyes, and large whiskers, his costume of green satin with pointed hat and red drooping feather, were alone enough to "send simple men to their prayers". Tilly invaded Bohemia, achieved an easy victory over Prague, and in a few months Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia submitted to Austria. These rapid successes created a profound impression. The Emperor Ferdinand II. resolved to crush out of Bohemia all idea of civil or religious liberty, and with his own hands he tore up their beloved "Charter of Liberty".
Charter of Liberty Destroyed.

From this moment the three countries lost their religious reform, their ancient liberties, their national life, and their political importance. The Palatinate suffered much in the same way. The Upper Palatinate and a portion of the Lower Palatinate were handed over to Maximilian, the Romanist Duke of Bavaria, together with the electoral dignity.

The "League" triumphed, and nothing seemed to oppose the will of Ferdinand. It is true that for a time two bold generals, Christian of Brunswick and Ernest of Mansfeld, defied the imperial power. But Tilly seemed everywhere victorious. He had dashed into Westphalia, and already began to dispense to the Romanists the lands which had been granted to the reformed party, when suddenly all the Protestant princes rose up boldly and called for help to the King of Denmark, Christian IV.

CHAPTER XLII.

Second
Period.
Danish,
1625.

KING CHRISTIAN undertook the campaign as the "leader and champion of the Protestant Union". The Emperor Ferdinand was in great difficulty to know how to raise sufficient men and money to meet this new enemy, when Albert, Count Wallenstein (Waldstein), Duke of Friedland, a Bohemian officer of large property, came forward and proposed to raise an army at his own expense, and in a few weeks 30,000 men were collected and marched towards the Elbe.

Wallen-
stein.

1626.

At Lutter in Brunswick King Christian was defeated by Tilly, and in the following year Wallenstein drove him out of Germany and seized the whole of Denmark with the exception of one port.

1628.
Stralsund.

In order to repay these services, the Emperor deposed the Duke of Mecklenburg, and gave all his estates to Wallenstein, together with the title of "generalissimo of the forces both by land and sea". Not content, however, with Mecklenburg, Wallenstein set his heart on gaining Pomerania also; and for this purpose he laid siege to the strong fortress of Stralsund; but the citizens made such an heroic defence that he was obliged to abandon it. The Emperor found himself constrained to treat with King Christian, and the *Treaty of Lübeck* was signed in 1629.

Treaty of
Lübeck,
1629.

Council of
Ratisbon.

Meanwhile Wallenstein behaved with such merciless rigor to the Germans that he was detested by them; his extortions and cruelty roused their greatest wrath; at the *Council of Ratisbon* the Emperor was artfully per-

suaded by the representations of Père Joseph, the confidant of Richelieu, to dismiss Wallenstein. Contrary to all expectations, the Duke of Friedland resigned his position without a word of remonstrance, only remarking, "Ferdinand has cut off his right hand". He retired to Prague, where he lived on his own estates in regal magnificence, and the Duke of Mecklenburg was reinstated in his dominions.

Wallenstein is described by Schiller as a "tall, thin, yellow-faced man, with short red hair, glittering eyes, and a dark foreboding brow!"

From Prague he still sent out despatches all over Europe, and when he was known to be deeply engaged in important business, even the traffic in the neighboring streets was stopped, that he might not be disturbed.

He was deeply imbued with the superstition of the age, and spent much of his time in studying his fortune by astrology.

CHAPTER XLIII.

THE "SNOW KING".

1630-1635. IN 1630 an unexpected helper appeared on the Protestant side in the person of Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, the "Snow King," as he was called from his far-away northern home.

**Third
Period.
Swedish.**

In appearance he was very striking, immensely tall and strong, with fair complexion, blue eyes, in manner dignified and calm. There is no finer character in all history than this heroic and deeply-religious man; sternly opposed to all vice, he was severe yet gentle, and was both loved and feared by all his subjects. He was as able a statesman as he was general, and combined rare qualities with the most remarkable talents.

With 15,000 men he landed on the coast of Pomerania. His first act was to fall on his knees and pray for the blessing of God on his undertaking. His army was small in number, but absolutely united; and the piety of their chief, the devotion of the soldiers, and the severity of their discipline, were in strong contrast to the ferocious hordes of Tilly.

**Sack of
Magdeburg,
1631.**

The imperial troops were soon driven out of Pomerania and Mecklenburg; but Gustavus Adolphus was too late to save the great fortress of Magdeburg, which was sacked and burnt, amidst unspeakable atrocities, by the inexorable General Tilly.

Everywhere the people saluted the Swedes as their deliverers. But it was not so with the princes. Either

they were afraid of the wrath of Ferdinand II., or their pride was humiliated at finding themselves dependent on the intervention of strangers; in any case, they received their new allies very coldly. Only by great patience and prudence could Gustavus Adolphus gain some of them to his side.

The Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg absolutely refused to enter into an alliance with him, declaring they would "rather remain neutral than make common cause with the Swede".

Gustavus Adolphus, not meeting with the support he had had every right to expect, hesitated to advance southwards, leaving enemies behind him who might cut off his retreat to the Baltic. This hesitation for a moment seemed to justify the contemptuous disdain with which the Roman Catholic League heard of the arrival of the king. "He is a schoolboy, to whom we will give a thrashing," said Wallenstein. "He is a King of Snow, who will melt when he comes south," added Ferdinand II.

Meantime all Europe was in horror at the sack of Magdeburg. The Emperor ordered Tilly to turn his attack upon Saxony (the neutrality of the Elector had irritated him), and the Elector in dismay appealed to the King of Sweden for succor. Gustavus Adolphus, putting aside all rancor against the Elector for his previous coldness, marched on Leipsic in pursuit of Tilly. Never had that warrior been beaten. In all the thirty-six battles he had fought, he had always come off victorious. But it is said that the crimes he had committed at Magdeburg haunted him, and unstrung his nerves. At Breitenfeld, not far from Leipsic, for the first time, he was overcome by Gustavus Adolphus and fled to Bavaria. Here on the Lech, a tributary of the Danube, he was once more confronted with the Swedes, and a second

Breitenfeld
or Leipsic,
1631.

Lech.

time defeated. Mortally wounded, he died three days afterwards, and the Swedes, overrunning Saxon Bavaria, entered Munich in triumph.

In dismay at the brilliant victories of Gustavus Adolphus, the Emperor turned for help again to Wallenstein, and entreated him again to raise an army in his defence. Wallenstein agreed, but only on condition that he should have unlimited powers over the armies of Austria and Spain, and that at the close of the war Mecklenburg should be restored to him. In his difficulty the Emperor could not refuse. In a wonderfully short space of time Wallenstein was in the field, and the war recommenced. On a plain near Lützen, twelve miles to the south of Leipsic, the imperial general waited his foe. A fog delayed the battle till eleven o'clock in the morning, and then Gustavus Adolphus swung himself into his saddle with a prayer on his lips, and to the music of Luther's noble hymn of praise. The strife raged furiously. Gustavus received a shot in the arm, but still led on his troops. A second bullet (possibly aimed by some traitor) pierced his spine, and he fell lifeless from his horse. Though Wallenstein's courage never failed, the imperial troops wavered and fled, and the victory remained with the Protestants, but there was no rejoicing, for their beloved king was dead.

His body was found after the battle, much disfigured and riddled with balls, under a heap of slain, near a large stone, still called the "Stone of the Swede".

In wild haste Wallenstein rushed off to Bohemia; probably with the idea of gaining the crown. For this purpose he entered into secret negotiations with his enemies, but his intrigues were discovered and reported to the Emperor; he was deposed from his high position, but confident in his power over his soldiers, he still believed himself invincible, and shutting himself up in the

town of Eger, he made offers to the princes of the Lutheran cause to join them against the Emperor. They, however, refused to accept his overtures.

One week later, at midnight, a Scotchman named Gordon, a trusted servant of Wallenstein, and an Irish Captain Devereux, with thirty soldiers, burst into his bedroom. He had just gone to bed, but springing up, was standing by the table in his shirt, when the assassins rushed in. "Are you the traitor who will deliver the imperial troops to the enemy, and tear the crown from the head of the Emperor?" cried Devereux. Wallenstein made no reply, but stretching out his arms, he was pierced by a halbert, run right through his body, and fell dead.

Death of
Wallen-
stein, 1634.

There is no actual proof that Ferdinand II. instigated the deed, but he richly rewarded the murderers; and although Wallenstein's treachery is undoubted, his murder will always remain as a blot on the history of Ferdinand's reign.

CHAPTER XLIV.

1635-1648. THE death of Gustavus Adolphus, followed by that of
Fourth Period. Wallenstein, left the burden of Swedish affairs on the
French-Swedish, late king's chancellor and friend Oxenstiern, who continued the same policy as his master, and in 1635 allied himself with the French under Richelieu, and carried on the war.

The Swedes were commanded by Bernard, Duke of Saxe-Weimar (who died of the plague in 1639); General Torstenson, the former page of Gustavus Adolphus; and Wrangel, the admiral.

The French, by the Prince de Condé and Marshal Turenne.

The Germans, by Max Piccolomini. Johann von Werth, and Mercy.

Leipsic,
1642.

The victory of Leipsic gained by Torstenson over Piccolomini incited Christian IV. of Denmark to rejoin the fray. The coalition of Sweden, Denmark, and France proved so strong that Maximilian of Bavaria lost courage; the Emperor Ferdinand II., also weary of the contest, agreed to make peace; and in 1648 the *Peace of Westphalia* brought the long, desolating Thirty Years' War to an end. By this *Peace of Westphalia*—

Treaty of
Westphalia,
1648.

France received Alsace (with the exception of Strasbourg), and the two important fortresses of Breisach and Philipsburg, as well as Metz, Toul, and Verdun.

Sweden received part of Pomerania, Stralsund, Stettin, Wismar, the Island of Rugen, and the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, with five millions of dollars.

Brandenburg received part of Pomerania and several bishoprics, including Magdeburg.

Holland was declared independent.

Swiss Cantons was also declared independent.

Bavaria kept the Upper Palatinate and second Electorate, whilst the Lower Palatinate and Electorate were given back to the Elector Palatine of the Rhine, thus increasing the number of electors to eight instead of seven.

The Treaty of Westphalia is the first really European treaty, and the first attempt to give a "Code of Nations" which should form a basis for future diplomatic negotiations.

It also marks the close of the ascendancy of Spain and Austria in Europe, and the rise of French power. Germany was left in a miserable condition: worn out by war, and decimated by pestilence, her population diminished so that it is estimated that in Berlin and Köln, out of 20,000 inhabitants, only 6000 remained alive; the surrounding land, covered with heaps of ashes, marked the sites of former busy towns, whilst deserts stretched for leagues instead of fields of corn. The Protestants, however, had reason to rejoice in the Peace of Westphalia, for they were allowed complete religious freedom, and the same right of holding lands and revenues as the Roman Catholics.

LATER EMPERORS OF GERMANY.

CHAPTER XLV.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

**Ferdinand
III., 1637.**

AFTER Wallenstein's death the Emperor's son Ferdinand took the command of the troops, and carried on the war for thirteen years longer. He followed his father to the throne of Germany in 1637, and found himself burdened with heavily complicated affairs of state, besides the anxieties of the Thirty Years' War, in which he had not only to contend with the Swedes and their party in Germany, but he had also to withstand the encroachments of France. All Germany sighed for peace.

**Treaty of
Westphalia,
1648.**

The Treaty of Westphalia in 1648 was joyfully received by all parties. It was signed in two cities,—at Münster with the French and at Osnabrück with the Swedes.

The most important feature of this period is the remarkable reign of Louis XIV. in France. His unbounded ambition drew him into the most unwarrantable wars, with the idea of annexing the various countries and making himself supreme ruler in Europe. One of the arbitrary actions by which he exasperated Germany was his taking back (1681) Strasburg without regard to the treaty by which it had been secured to the Germans. Four years later he fell upon the Palatinate, which he ravaged completely, in order, as he said, to secure to his own kingdom an eastern boundary which should be a desert land, and give himself some reason

for his arrogant boast, "L'Etat c'est moi".¹ Heidelberg, Speier, Worms, and many other cities were given over to the flames; and the beautiful country, which had been enriched during the Middle Ages by valuable monuments, was reduced to a mass of ruins; the remains of the castle of Heidelberg are a living testimony to the spoliation carried on. Ten thousand unfortunate beings were turned out without house or home. The fury and indignation of Germany cannot be described, and the war with France now assumed a national character.

In 1658 Ferdinand died, and was succeeded by his son Leopold I.

¹ "I am the State." In spite of his greed for conquest, Louis XIV. did much for arts and sciences. Paris became the centre of culture, and the French language became common to all cultivated people throughout Europe.

CHAPTER XLVI.

Leopold I., 1658. LEOPOLD'S reign is specially distinguished by his constant wars with the Turks. The latter, secretly encouraged by Louis XIV., took advantage of the dissensions in Hungary to invade the plains of the Danube and march on Vienna, when the Emperor, terrified at their encroachments, hastily signed a treaty with them for twenty years. Peace, however, only lasted five years, owing to Leopold's ill-judged conduct towards his subjects. At the Treaty of Westphalia the Hungarian Protestants had obtained liberty of worship; but Leopold I. (educated by the Jesuits) reopened persecutions of the people, and withdrew their rights and privileges.

Turkish Invasion, 1683. Siege of Vienna. The Hungarians rose in revolt, and called in the Turks to their aid. They very soon arrived under the walls of Vienna, commanded by the grand vizier, Kara Mustafa. The court fled to Lintz, leaving the defence of the city to Count von Staremberg; the latter made his name famous whilst gallantly holding out the city for sixty days; thus giving time for the imperial and Polish troops to unite under Charles Duke of Lorraine, and John Sobieski, the heroic King of Poland, and come to the rescue of Vienna. It was in this engagement that the young Prince Eugene of Savoy first distinguished himself. His gallant and adventurous life afterwards made him one of the heroes of the century. After a terrific struggle the Turks fled, and from this time suffered nothing but reverses, losing place after place; Hungary fell back into the power of the Austrians, and the war be-

came general. Poland, Venice, and Russia seized the opportunity of attacking Turkey on all her frontiers. The *Peace of Ryswick* and the glorious victories of Louis of Baden and Prince Eugene obliged the Sultan to conclude the *Peace of Carlowitz*. Turkey ceded to Austria all Lower Hungary except Temeswar and Belgrade; to Venice, the Morea; and to Russia, Azof. Hungary was from this time incorporated into Austria. The Treaty of Carlowitz showed the Turkish question in its true light, and announced the gradual decline of the Ottoman Empire.

*Peace of
Ryswick
1697.*

*Peace of
Carlowitz,
1699.*

Meantime the arbitrary acts of Louis XIV. of France were exasperating all Europe. Friends and enemies, Catholics and Protestants, even the Papal See itself, all had injuries to avenge, and only waited for a favorable opportunity to set about it. The *Revocation of the Edict of Nantes*, 1685, put this into their hands. William of Orange, the intrepid defender of the independence of Europe, offered to form a coalition; and Spain, Holland, Sweden, Austria, Brandenburg, and nearly all the princes of Germany and Italy, formed at Augsburg the defensive *League of Augsburg*, which England eventually joined.

1685.

*League of
Augsburg,
1686.*

THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

CHAPTER XLVII.

THE eighteenth century marks a transition from modern to contemporaneous history; and shows the struggle of monarchism against revolutionary principles.

Three wars of succession are noticeable: those of Spain, Poland, and Austria; the Seven Years' War ending in the rise of Prussia; and the struggle which closed with the partition of Poland. The exaggeration of the monarchical system had brought a reaction in favor of national and popular rights. The need for political and social reform had become general; the Order of Jesuits was repressed, and finally at the end of the century the revolutions in America and France introduced the era of great contemporary revolutions. Louis XIV., Peter the Great, and Charles XII. are the leading characters in the first third of the century; in the latter part the most remarkable are Louis XV., Frederic II., and Maria Theresa, Washington, Catherine II., Louis XVI., Buonaparte, and the heroes of the French revolution, etc.

Spain, Sweden, and Turkey suffered a species of dismemberment by the loss of provinces and colonies. Poland was completely broken up. The old duchy of Lorraine was annexed by Louis XV. and that of Courland by Catherine II. Savoy, Geneva, and the countries of the Lower Rhine, with the ecclesiastical Electorates of the Rhine border, were violently annexed by the French Republic. The Kingdom of the Two Sicilies

recovered its ancient prerogatives after having for a time passed through the hands of Austria. Austria acquired Galicia; and Prussia (Brandenburg) gained the greater part of Pomerania and Poland, besides the whole of ducal and royal Prussia and Silesia.

But at the end of the eighteenth century political relations were completely upset by the French Revolution.

AUSTRIAN HOUSE.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION. (I.)

1700.
War of
Spanish
Succession.

THE elder branch of the Hapsburg family died out in Spain in the person of Charles (Carlos) II.,¹ who, in his will, confided the succession to Philippe of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV. The Emperor Leopold I. claimed the throne for his second son Charles (afterwards Charles VI.). Europe was afraid of either prince, not wishing to see Spain so closely allied to either France or Austria. William III. of England proposed a division of the kingdom; but the Spaniards would not hear of their country being dismembered, and declared themselves in favor of Philippe of Anjou, under the belief that France was the only power strong enough to defend their rights. The "grand monarque" accepted the offer for his grandson, and took leave of him with the words, "Go, my son; there are no longer any Pyrenees!"

The news at first produced a feeling of stupefaction throughout Europe. Wearied by the last war, they were indisposed to commence another. But the encroachments of Louis XIV. were not to be tolerated.

¹The Hapsburg Charles (Carlos) II. of Spain had two sisters; one (Maria Theresa of Spain) married Louis XIV. of France, and the other married Leopold I., Emperor of Germany, thus giving both these countries a certain claim to the throne of Spain when Carlos II. died childless.

As soon as he had taken possession of the Spanish provinces in the name of his grandson, he turned out the Dutch garrisons placed in the Netherlands for the protection of the United Provinces; and, moreover, on the death of James II. of England, he proposed to place his own son on the throne, as James III., in prejudice to the established King William III. There was an outburst of anger from Great Britain at the idea of the "insolent King of France daring to impose a sovereign upon them".

Europe divided into two camps: on one side, Austria supported by England, Holland, most of the princes of the German Empire, Portugal, Savoy and Prussia (now growing into one of the formidable powers of Europe); on the other side, France was only befriended by the Electors of Bavaria and Cologne.

In Spain itself the Aragonese accepted Philippe V. with enthusiasm, whilst the Castilians preferred the Archduke Charles of Austria; but on the whole the general feeling was in favor of the French prince.

War was declared in 1701.

1701

Louis XIV. was less fortunate than his grandson. The allies achieved brilliant victories at Hochstadt in Bavaria, Blenheim (1704), and Ramillies in the Netherlands (1706), Turin, Oudenarde on the Scheldt (1708), Malplaquet (1709), and elsewhere both by sea and land. Marlborough and Eugene¹ on the one side were more than a match for the finest generalship of their enemies on the other; but, in spite of all their successes, Spain held its own, and the French prince Philippe V. was finally established on the throne.

In the year 1705 the Emperor Leopold I. died, and his elder son, Joseph I., succeeded to the imperial throne.

¹ Prince of Savoy-Carignan, general in the service of Emp. Leopold.

Joseph I., 1705. Joseph I. maintained the war with France till 1707; he reigned eight years, and was followed by his brother the Archduke Charles.

Charles VI. Treaty of Utrecht, 1713. Treaty of Rastadt, 1714. The accession of Charles VI. changed the position of affairs, and led to the *Treaty of Utrecht* in 1713 and that of Rastadt in 1714, when Philippe V. kept Spain and its colonies; Austria obtained the Spanish Netherlands, the Kingdom of Naples, Milan and Sardinia; England received Gibraltar and Minorca from Spain, Hudson's Bay and Nova Scotia from France; to Holland was granted the liberty of placing garrisons in most of the fortresses of the Austrian Netherlands. The Duke of Savoy¹ obtained Sicily with the title of king; the kingly title was granted to Frederic I., who thus became the *first King of Prussia*. Louis XIV. only survived the Treaty of Utrecht a very short time; he died in 1715, leaving his throne to his great-grandson Louis XV., a child of only five years old.

¹ Victor, Duke of Savoy, was obliged to give up the Kingdom of Sicily, exchanging it with the Emperor Charles VI. for that of Sardinia in 1720.

CHAPTER XLIX.

WAR OF THE POLISH SUCCESSION. (II.)

POLAND had begun to decline since the death of Sigismund the Great, the last of the Jagellon dynasty, when the crown of Poland was offered to foreign princes, and in 1587 was taken by the grandson of Gustavus Vasa, King of Sweden. When the gallant John Sobieski, the last independent king, died in 1697, Poland quickly sank down, and fell a prey to the ambition of surrounding nations.

War of
Polish
Succes-
sion.

The war of the Polish succession in 1733 may not seem to be of much importance in itself, but it affected some of the articles of the Treaty of Utrecht.

Louis XV. of France on coming of age married Marie Leczinski, daughter of the ex-King of Poland, Stanislas Leczinski, who had been deposed 1709. For some time the aged French minister Fleury and the English Walpole succeeded in maintaining peace in Europe; but the death of the reigning king, Augustus II. of Poland, rekindled a war. Poland divided into two parties: one party, supported by France, re-elected Stanislas Leczinski; whilst the other party, helped by Russia and Austria, declared for Augustus III., son of the preceding king.

The Russians entered Poland, and turned out Stanislas, who fled to Danzig. Cardinal Fleury could not see the father-in-law of his king besieged in his own town without offering help; but he sent only the barest necessa-

Treaty of
Vienna,
1738.

ries in the way of supplies; and all Stanislas could do was to escape from Danzig, and take refuge in France. Fleury, in revenge for this reverse, joined with Spain and Sardinia in attacking Austria. The French dashed into Lorraine.¹ At the same time the Sardinians attacked Milan;² Don Carlos, the young Duke of Parma, invaded Naples, and annexed it, together with the Kingdom of Sicily, thus once more bringing the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies under Spanish dominion; and Charles VI., finding himself vanquished on all points, signed the *Treaty of Vienna*. By this treaty Stanislas received Lorraine in place of Poland (but on his death in 1766 Lorraine was once more united to France); Tuscany was given to Duke Francis, as compensation for the loss of Lorraine. Don Carlos kept the conquered kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, but gave up the Duchy of Parma in exchange to the Emperor. The King of Sardinia obtained some estates near Milan. Augustus III. remained in possession of Poland.

¹ Duke Francis of Lorraine had married Maria Theresa, daughter of the Emperor Charles VI.

² Don Carlos (afterwards Carlos III. of Spain) was the son of Philip V. of Spain.

CHAPTER L.

WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION. (III.)

As the Emperor Charles VI. had no sons, and he fore-
saw that the House of Hapsburg in Germany would
become extinct upon his death, he earnestly desired that
his favorite daughter, Maria Theresa, Archduchess of
Austria, might be acknowledged Empress, and succeed
to the throne, in preference to the children of his
brother Joseph. He therefore issued a Pragmatic Sanction to this effect, and appealed to all the European powers to agree to it. To obtain the consent of the King of Poland, he supported the claim of Augustus III. against Stanislas Leczinski; and for the same purpose he allowed many concessions to France and Spain through the Treaty of Vienna. Prince Eugene at last told the Emperor plainly that he had "much better seek for help by supporting a strong army of his own, than by making vague diplomatic promises to other countries".

The death of Charles VI. in 1740 opened a new European question. According to the Pragmatic Sanction, Maria Theresa was proclaimed Empress,¹ but a formidable league was drawn together to oppose her election.

The Electors of Bavaria and Saxony² each claimed the succession to the Empire.

¹ And Queen of Hungary and Bohemia.

² Augustus III. of Poland.

Allies
against
Maria
Theresa.

France declared in favor of the Elector of Bavaria.

Prussia, in its new character as a kingdom under Frederic II., wanted to get hold of Silesia.

Philip V. of Spain, or rather his ambitious wife, Elizabeth of Parma, wanted the German crown for one of her own sons.

Charles Emmanuel, King of Sardinia, desired to secure Milan and the surrounding estates.

Allies of
Maria
Theresa.

England only, under George II., who was jealous of the rising power of Prussia and Bavaria, and feared anything which would endanger his own Hanover electorate, declared for Austria and Maria Theresa.

The war of the Austrian succession presents many turns of fortune. The political "wheels within wheels" became more and more involved as the time went on.

First
Period,
1740-42.
Second
Period,
1743-44.

At the outset, Austria was fighting alone with Hungary against a strong league, and was beaten.

The alliance of England and the neutrality of Prussia encouraged Austria, and gave her partial success.

Third
Period,
1744-45.

The rejection of neutrality by Frederic II., and the momentary defection of England, brought fresh reverses upon Austria.

Fourth
Period,
1746-48.

At last a peace with Prussia and the renewed support of England established equilibrium for a second time. From this it will be seen that England and Prussia exercised a decisive influence on the march of events.

Molwitz,
1741.

Frederic II. of Prussia was the first to enter on a campaign. He took possession of Silesia, and remained master of the province after having beaten the Austrians at Molwitz. Shortly afterwards a Franco-Bavarian army entered the archduchy, descended the valley of the Danube, and was soon within a few leagues of Vienna. The Saxons in their turn entered Bohemia, whilst the Spaniards and Sardinians advanced on Milan. The

old Hapsburg monarchy seemed to be on the eve of complete destruction.

The allies, however, had entered into the league against Austria from such various motives that the coalition was bound to be speedily dissolved. Neither the Elector of Saxony nor the King of Prussia cared to work for the aggrandizement of Bavaria. Frederic II. himself was even ready to ally himself with Maria Theresa, if she would only give up Silesia. As for the King of Sardinia, his mind was entirely engrossed with the dread of seeing the Bourbons—who were already masters of Naples—established in Upper Italy; for his own “young kingdom” would then have been infallibly crushed between the Bourbons of France and the Bourbons of Spain.

Three circumstances saved Austria: the mistakes of her enemies; the heroic devotion of the Hungarians; and the intervention of England.

The Elector of Bavaria, who was a man as vain as he was incapable, committed blunder after blunder. Instead of marching on Vienna he turned to Prague, in order to be crowned King of Bohemia; and then went to Frankfort, where he was crowned Emperor under the name of Charles VII.

Charles
VII., 1742.

Meantime Maria Theresa never lost her courage; even from a child she had shown herself gifted not only with rare talents, but with powers of command and organization such as would have done credit to any man ~~man~~. In her nineteenth year she had married Franz Steffan of Lorraine, the Duke of Tuscany, and she was hardly twenty-four when she succeeded her father as Queen of Hungary and Bohemia, and laid claim to the title of Empress under the authority of the Pragmatic Sanction. But now enemies assailed her on all sides; and well might Prince Eugene say “that the best de-

fence for the Pragmatic Sanction would be richly filled coffers and a well-disciplined army”.

Whilst the new Emperor was wasting his time with coronation ceremonials, Maria Theresa called a “Reichstag” (Hungarian Diet) at Presburg, presented herself before her subjects, dressed in mourning, with the crown of St. Steffan on her head and the sword of Hungary at her side; holding her baby in her arms she addressed the assembly in a pathetic speech in Latin,¹ declaring that her only hope lay in the known courage of her faithful Hungarian subjects. The Magyar chiefs—forgetting all the tyrannies of their Hapsburg masters—drew their swords and shouted enthusiastically, “Moriatur pro rege nostro Maria Theresa” (We will die for our *King* Maria Theresa).

The country rose *en masse*; thousands of Hungarians, Croats, and Pandours (Hungarian infantry) poured into Bohemia and Bavaria; the Franco-Bavarian armies were scattered; and whilst the conceited Charles VII. was parading at Frankfort, his capital Munich fell into the hands of the Austrians and Hungarians, whose hordes of soldiery ravaged the country on all sides. The French troops, engaged to defend Bavaria, were left by the absurd parsimony of Fleury without money or supplies, and would certainly have fallen victims to the Austrians, had it not been for the brilliant conduct of the young Maurice, Duke of Saxony, illegitimate son of Augustus II., who had for many years been attached to the service of France.

¹ Languages of the *Austro-Hungarian* Empire:

German in Upper and Lower Austria, Tyrol, etc.

Magyar, a kind of Finnish, spoken by the Magyars of Hungary.

Czech, a kind of Slavonic, in Bohemia.

Polish, Ruthenian, Romanic, and many others.

Till 1849 Latin was the language of the Hungarian law-courts and Parliament.

In England, Walpole had been superseded by the young and gifted minister William Pitt, and he gave it as his opinion that the country ought to send abundant assistance, both in money and troops, and openly take the part of Maria Theresa. Through his mediation, the young queen at last consented to come to terms with Prussia, Saxony, and Sardinia; but it was not without heartburning that she agreed to cede Silesia to Frederic II. at the Treaty of Breslau, 1742.

Two years had hardly elapsed, however, when Frederic II., fearing that Maria Theresa would succeed in retaking his beloved Silesia, joined the French and Bavarian alliance against her, invaded Bohemia, and captured Prague after a ten days' siege. On the other hand, England—being threatened with an invasion in Scotland by Charles Edward, the Young Pretender—was obliged to recall her troops from the continent; and Austria, abandoned to herself, and confronted once more with her formidable Prussian adversary, was defeated on all sides. Louis XV. also invaded the Austrian Netherlands, and gained the victory of Fontenoy (near Tournay), whilst Frederic of Prussia three times defeated the Austrian forces.

In dismay the Austrian troops were recalled, Bavaria was evacuated, and Charles VII. re-entered his capital Munich.

Scarcely, however, had he established himself there when he died, and his son Maximilian Joseph hastened to conclude a peace with Maria Theresa, promising to give his vote for her husband Franz Steffan of Lorraine (whom she desired to have elected Emperor), on condition that the cession of Silesia was granted to him. This was done at the Treaty of Dresden, and the Duke of Lorraine was crowned Emperor as Francis I.

Treaty of
Breslau,
1742.

Fontenoy.

Maximilian
Joseph,
1745.

Treaty of
Dresden,
1745.
Francis I.

CHAPTER LI.

MARIA THERESA AND FRANCIS I.

Maria
Theresa
and
Francis I.

EUROPE had need of repose, and the various States set to work to recover from their fatigue. France and England, Frederic II. and Maria Theresa, turned their attention to industries and national works, to raise their kingdoms once more to social prosperity. Unfortunately, there were too many causes of discord for a long-continued peace. The various maritime powers were dismayed at the increasing power of the English fleet; the surrounding nations were jealous of the rapid development of Prussia; and Frederic II. the Great, far from seeking to gain their sympathies, amused himself by wounding the feelings of the kings and queens by pungent epigrams. It was only too easy to find good reasons for the Seven Years' War which followed:

- I. The old maritime rivalry between France and England.
- II. The new antagonism between Austria and Prussia.

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

1756-63.

"Europe," says Voltaire in his "*Siècle de Louis XV.*," "had never seen brighter days than those of the seven years 1748-1755, when commerce flourished from Petersburg to Cadiz, the fine arts were everywhere encouraged, a mutual sympathy seemed to pervade all nations;

Europe appeared to be one large family, re-united after many quarrels."

Maria Theresa of Austria, however, could never forgive Frederic II. of Prussia for gaining Silesia, and it is said that she never saw a Silesian without bursting into tears. In the hope of recovering the province, she entered into a treaty with the Swedish King Adolphus Frederic (of Holstein Gottorp, a descendant of Vasa), with the Russian Empress Elizabeth, and the Polish King Augustus III. (Elector of Saxony), for the partition between them of the *Prussian kingdom*. Knowing by experience that she could have no hope of success against Frederic II., if she should have to guard against France at the same time, and so to divide her army by keeping one portion engaged on the Rhine, she therefore employed her clever diplomatist, Prince Kaunitz, in winning favor for her at Versailles.

It would have seemed impossible for France to set aside all her traditional politics, and enter into any intimate alliance with her old foe. But the unworthy monarch of France, Louis XV., was entirely in the hands of his favorites; and Madame de Pompadour reigned supreme at court. She had been deeply hurt at some witty but cutting sarcasms levelled at her by the King of Prussia, and she received with delight the advances of Maria Theresa. She was still further charmed when the latter wrote to her in the most flattering manner, calling her "my good friend and cousin". This was sufficient to secure a so-called "treaty of defence" between France and Austria, having for its ultimate end the annihilation of Prussia.

Treaty of
Versailles,
1756.

Frederic II. and George II., finding themselves neglected by their former allies, drew together: England offered to furnish subsidies to Prussia, if Frederic would defend Hanoverian interests in return.

The opening of the Seven Years' War shows an astonishing position of affairs:

Sweden going hand in hand with Russia;

Poland with Austria, united in the one desire to dismember Prussia; but even this was less wonderful than the Franco-Austrian coalition.

The Northern powers hoped to gain some territorial advantage out of the business; but the treaty concluded by France was doubly impolitic, as it turned away the maritime power of France from its resistance to England, absorbing it in a struggle with Prussia—her natural ally—to the advantage of Austria, her old enemy.

1756.

Thus France, Austria, Russia, Poland, and Sweden were united in an act of spoliation, desiring to wipe out from the map of Europe a country hitherto only holding a secondary rank amongst the sovereignties.

England and Prussia alone combined to defend national interests and the balance of power, against petty boudoir jealousies and dynastic ambitions.

On the one side Elizabeth of Russia and Madame de Pompadour upholding the hereditary pretensions of the Hapsburgs; on the other, Frederic II. and William Pitt—a great monarch and a great statesman—very different in personality, but each great enough to admire the other, and both thoroughly in earnest in working for the grandeur and glory of their respective nations.

Pirna.

Losowitz.

Frederic II. of Prussia, seeing warlike preparations made on all sides, determined to be beforehand in the field. He placed himself at the head of 60,000 men, attacked Dresden,¹ and forced the army of the Elector of Saxony to retreat to Pirna. Leaving half his troops before Pirna, Frederic turned to Bohemia, marched against the Austrians, gained the battle of Losowitz,

¹ In Dresden Frederic found the papers showing the treacherous designs of his enemies against Prussia.

then back again to Pirna, forcing the Saxons to capitulate. He obliged Augustus III. (Elector of Saxony) to retire to his Kingdom of Poland, took possession of his electorate, and forced 15,000 men to surrender and enter his own regiments.

This unforeseen aggression excited a universal clamor. France declared the invasion of Saxony was a violation of the Treaty of Westphalia, and sent three armies, one under the command of Richelieu, to the rescue.

At first, the French had some success, and Prussia ^{1757.} was menaced at all points. Frederic hurried a second time into Bohemia, gained a desperate victory at Prague, but in his turn suffered a complete defeat at Kolin. It was in commemoration of the Austrian vic- ^{Kolin, 1757.} tory at Kolin that Maria Theresa instituted the military "Order of Maria Theresa".

Meantime, the Russians and the Swedes were ad- ^{Convention of Kloster-Seven, 1757.} vancing victoriously; the French beat the English and Hanoverians, and obliged them to sign a treaty, called the Kloster-Seven Convention.

The imperial armies invaded Silesia, and penetrated into Berlin; and a French army, under the Maréchal de Soubise, advanced through Thuringia, threatening Frederic on the west. Frederic seemed lost, judging from his desperate position, and he even thought of committing suicide. It is said that he was only restrained from this by the fear that Voltaire would hold up his name to public contempt after his death.

He therefore once more marched against the French. ^{Rosbach, 1757.} At Rosbach, on the 5th of November, 1757, the Prussians had stationed their camp, and the soldiers were supposed to be reposing in their tents, when all at once, at a given signal, the tents sank to the ground, and there stood the whole Prussian army, in full battle array.

There was a complete panic; the German contin-

gents threw down their arms at the first cannon shot, and the French soldiers followed their example; only two brave Swiss regiments, "like impenetrable fortresses of red brick," as Frederic himself called them, covered their retreat, and prevented its being turned into a complete rout.

Leuthen.

Another brilliant victory was won by Frederic at Leuthen (considered by Napoleon as one of the *chefs d'œuvre* of military art); and Frederic made a glorious end to the campaign, by which he had thought he should perish miserably.

It was the happiest moment of his life. Fortune seemed to favor him once more. William Pitt refused to ratify the Convention of Kloster-Seven; and his German allies (Hanover, Brunswick, and Hesse) again took the field.

Equilibrium once again established, the struggle became a more equal one. For three years the war was pursued with varied success on either side; but unquestionably Prussia could not long have resisted so many powerful enemies. The greater part of Frederic's estates were occupied by the armies of his enemies, and even his capital was taken and pillaged by the Austro-Russians. Moreover, George II. died; and his successor George III., desiring peace, ceased to give any active support to the Prussians. The situation was hopelessly critical; the two Empresses, Maria Theresa and Elizabeth, felt assured of a triumphant ending to the war. Frederic was at Breslau with the remains of his army; saddened and dispirited, he refused all consolation, though he was no less resolute to end his days "in glory in some way or another," whilst defending Silesia, the one object of his ambition.

No less dispirited were his troops, who even spoke of laying down their arms, should they be called out to

battle again. Europe was in daily expectation of seeing Frederic the Great succumb to his misfortunes, when the death of the Empress Elizabeth of Russia put an end to all their surmises. Her successor Peter III., an ardent admirer of Frederic the Great, not only abandoned the Austrian alliance, but sent troops to the aid of Prussia.

The news came as a thunderclap upon Austria. Frederic, with renewed energy, took the field, and chased the Austrians out of Silesia. The new Czar, it is true, was shortly after dethroned; and his wife, Catherine II., his successor, retired from the war.

But Prussia was none the less saved. Maria Theresa and her allies were at the end of their resources; France and Spain had seen the ruin of their fleets. "Peace!" became the universal cry. It was proclaimed in the *Treaty of Paris*, between the maritime powers, England, France, and Spain; and at Hubertsburg, not far from Leipsic, between Austria and Prussia; when Frederic kept Silesia, on giving his promise to vote for the election of Joseph, eldest son of Maria Theresa, as "King of the Romans".

Peace of
Paris, 10th
Feb., 1763.

Peace of
Huberts-
burg, 15th
Feb., 1763.

The Elector of Saxony (and King of Poland) received back his estates; Sweden evacuated the Prussian share of Pomerania; and France gave up Minorca and Canada to the English.

The Seven Years' War had cost Europe a million men, and materially changed, not the territories, but the political influence of several nations. France, deprived of her fleet by the victories of Hawke, Anson, Boscawen, and Pocock, and of her colonies by the Peace of Hubertsburg, ceased to be regarded as the first military power on the continent. Austria was considerably weakened, whilst Prussia emerged covered with glory, and became one of the first-class European powers.

England, by the destruction of her enemies' fleets, and by the increase of her colonies, obtained important annexations, laid the foundation of the vast Indian Empire, became possessor of half North America, and remained supreme on the ocean.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

CHAPTER LII.

JOSEPH II. (THE REFORMER), LEOPOLD II.,
AND FRANCIS II.

WHEN the Emperor Francis I. (of Lorraine) died, his son, Joseph II., was declared Emperor; but until the time of her death, his energetic mother, Maria Theresa, really acted as regent; and history has seldom shown us a finer or more spirited ruler than she proved herself to be throughout her long stormy reign. As a mother, she had been careful in the education of her children; and Joseph especially had from a boy steadily studied the history and welfare of his future people. At the age of thirty-nine, when he was left sole ruler by his mother's decease (1780), he possessed a thorough knowledge of the position and daily lives of the various classes of his subjects. He had travelled in Italy, France, and Spain, and even gone as far as Russia. Filled with a great desire to improve his country, he carried out many civil and religious changes. One of the principal of these was the "Edict of Toleration," giving to the Protestants and Jews equal rights with the Roman Catholics. He did away altogether with vassalage, and thus finished his mother's work in putting a final end to the feudal system. Unfortunately, the Emperor's good

Maria
Theresa
and Joseph
II., 1765.

Joseph II.
the Re-
former
1780

works were not allowed to be carried on without interruption. The Hungarians and the inhabitants of the Austrian Netherlands revolted and embittered the last years of his life, and the Turks made continual inroads on the borderlands.

Disputed
Succession
to Palati-
nate of the
Rhine.

Duchy of
Bavaria.

One of the gravest questions of his reign was the partition of Poland. After the "first partition" fifteen years of peace followed for Eastern Europe, but the ambition of the Emperor, who, to carry out his ideas of conquest, was ready to ally himself with any one likely to assist him, brought on a general war. The house of Wittelsbach (Bavaria) was divided into two branches; the elder or Palatinate branch had Heidelberg for its capital, and is known as the "Palatinate of the Rhine"; the younger, or Ducal branch, had the Duchy of Bavaria, with Munich for its capital, and at this time owned a second electorate. The younger or Bavarian branch became extinct on the death of the Emperor Maximilian Joseph, son of Charles VII.; and the Elector Palatine, Charles Theodore (chief of the elder branch), inherited the succession, and thus re-united the two sides of the Palatine House, and combined the two electorates. Charles Theodore had no children; and Joseph II. made an agreement with him, by which Bavaria and the Upper Palatinate should, on his death, be united with Austria. The German States, Prussia above all, and all the old adversaries of the Hapsburgs, refused, at any price, to consent to an act which would put central Germany at the mercy of Austria. Frederic II. of Prussia even invaded the Austrian dominion of Bohemia, and a new War of Succession seemed on the point of bursting out. But, through the mediation of France and Russia, the Peace of Teschen was arranged, and a universal war was averted. The succession of Charles Theodore was secured to his next heir, the Duke

Peace of
Teschen,
1779.

of Deux Ponts (or Bipont, Zweibrücken).¹ In this diplomatic struggle, Austria was threatening the peace of Europe, whilst Frederic II. was defending the Emperor. Catherine II. had only acted with a view of extending her influence in Germany, and she did not hesitate to abandon her old ally, Frederic II., and make overtures to the Emperor Joseph, when she thought him more disposed to concur in her plans of conquest. The political questions of the day were full of annoyance and weariness to Joseph. His whole passion was for reform. This carried him into excesses, which roused the indignation of his subjects; for, unfortunately, he disregarded the inequality of culture, and the various prejudices of the mixed population under his dominion; and the changes wrought so suddenly appeared to the mass of his ignorant subjects merely so much tyranny. He accorded complete liberty to all the people, whether of the Protestant faith or the Greek Church; destroyed 2024 monasteries, only leaving 700; the number of monks was reduced from 37,000 to 17,000; the revenues arising from these confiscations were expended in the erection of new parishes and useful institutions, such as schools, hospitals, poor-houses, and refuges for waifs and strays. The Bible was translated into the national tongue.

As a civil reformer, his great aim was to assure to all his subjects personal liberty, by the suppression of serfdom and taxes, and the equality of all ranks and classes in the eyes of the law. These measures, however excellent in themselves, introduced without regard for

¹ The Duchy of Zweibrücken (Bipont) was in possession of Charles Gustavus, Count Palatine of the Rhine, nephew of Gustavus Adolphus. He afterwards became Charles X. of Sweden, by the resignation of his cousin, Queen Christina, daughter of Gustavus Adolphus.

ancient laws and rights, caused the greatest trouble and perplexity to the people; and the unfortunate Emperor was so chagrined by the overthrow of his projects, and the misunderstanding of his subjects that his death was accelerated by grief; and the epitaph he composed for himself gives the keynote to the sadness of his later years: "Here lies Joseph II., unfortunate in all his undertakings".

Leopold II.,
1790. Joseph II. was succeeded by his brother, Leopold II.

The latter comprehended that the acquisition of some provinces of the Ottoman Empire would not compensate to Austria for the fatal results of the establishment of the Russians on the Danube, and he therefore made peace with the Sultan, and gave him back his conquests

Francis II.,
1792. (see Danubian Principalities). He only lived two years, however, and was followed by his son Francis II. in 1792.

1793. The Rhenish Provinces revolted against Francis II. in 1793; and in the ruinous wars that followed between Germany and France, the Emperor lost the Netherlands, all his territories west of the Rhine, and his states in Italy. Francis II. joined in the second partition of Poland in 1795. But the end of the eighteenth century witnessed the complete overthrow of all European politics by the French revolution. At the Treaty of Lunéville, Germany was obliged to make large cessions of territory to France (1801); and Francis II., hopeless of holding the reins of government longer over his large discordant dominions, resigned the crown of Germany, and from henceforth is known as Francis I., Emperor of Austria, Hungary and Bohemia (Austro-Hungarian Empire), 1806.

Treaty of
Lunéville,
1801.

CHAPTER LIII.

THE PARTITION OF POLAND.

POLAND had remained far behind the other countries in civilization, and in the eighteenth century was no further advanced than in the middle ages. Amongst the other Western nations, social development had emancipated and raised the lower orders, whilst the mass of the population in country places in Poland remained plunged in a serfdom as hard as it was lowering. The middle class had no power whatever; the nobles alone enjoyed any political rights, and Poland was practically an aristocratic republic, with a nominal chief. The kingdom had fast declined since the days of the noble John Sobieski, the last independent king, who even himself had failed to bring his turbulent people to order. The dissolution was only further hurried on in the reigns of the two princes of the House of Saxony, Augustus II. and Augustus III., who introduced into Warsaw (Varsovie) the luxury and self-indulgence of the great capitals of Europe.

The country was given up to the intrigues of Russia. During the Seven Years' War (1756-1763), the troops of the Czarina Elizabeth not only traversed the land at will, but established cantonments, as if Poland were already a Russian province.

On the death of Augustus III., 1764, the electors ¹⁷⁶⁴ divided into two parties, one calling themselves the "patriotic party," and desiring to hold to the old constitution; the other trusting to the protection of Russia, and proclaiming Stanislas Poniatowski, an unworthy favorite of Catherine II., as their king.

For a time the attention of Russia was diverted from Polish affairs by a fresh outbreak against the Turks. Some unfortunate Poles had taken refuge on Ottoman land; the Russians pursued them, burnt a village, and massacred the Turks.

At the news of this violation of territory, the people of Constantinople rose, and demanded that the Sultan should declare war against Russia. The struggle was a terrible one; on both sides, acts of atrocious barbarity were committed: the Russians took Moldavia and Wallachia; and the Turks, weakened by a Greek insurrection in the Morea, were also compelled to give up the Crimea to the Czarina.

First
Partition,
Feb., 1772.

Then Catherine II. turned her attention to Poland. The first arrangement for the partition of the unhappy country was made in a secret convention between Russia and Prussia, in the spring of 1772; but later in the same year the question came to an open issue.

Public
Partition,
Aug., 1773.

Prussia and Austria, fearing the increase of Russian domination, and in dismay at seeing Wallachia and Moldavia Muscovite provinces, decided on the definite dismemberment of Poland. It was at this time that Maria Theresa, acting as co-regent of Austria, with her son, Joseph II., put aside her detestation of the conqueror of Silesia, and made overtures to Frederic II. of Prussia. A meeting took place between the two sovereigns. This unforeseen alliance disconcerted Russia: Catherine was afraid that Austria would take up the cause of Turkey and prepared to make concessions.

1773.

As a sufficient inducement to the Empress to abandon Moldavia and Wallachia, the other powers agreed to conclude a treaty of partition, by which each was to take possession of a certain portion of Poland. It is said, however, that it was not without compunction that Maria Theresa closed with her share of the prey; and

that she suffered pangs of conscience on account of the injustice done to the unfortunate country.

Meantime, the war between Russia and Turkey continued, and was only concluded in 1774 by the Treaty of Kainardji in Bulgaria, by which the independence of the Crimea was established, and certain rights granted to Russia over all countries in which the Greek Church was established. <sup>1774-
Peace of
Kainardji.</sup>

The relations between Russia and Poland were growing terribly strained. In 1793, the Poles thought that the moment had come to recover their independence. The nobles had at last comprehended the necessity of a reform. They had suppressed old abuses, changed the constitution, and all Europe hailed with approbation what appeared to be the commencement of a new era for Poland. Frederic William II.¹ of Prussia promised his support to the reforming party, but a certain number of the aristocratic party declared that they would defend the old state of things, and preserve—so they said—the ancient liberty of the people. They even invoked succor from Russia; and the Czarina, Catherine II., sent troops to crush the partisans of the new constitution. ^{1793.}

The reforming party at last succumbed. The old order of things was re-established, and Catherine was proclaimed by the opposition as “the restorer of liberty to Poland”. They soon, however, saw that they had simply been made the tools of Russian ambition. ^{1793.}

In a very short time Catherine II. and Frederic William II. agreed to make a second partition of the country, declaring that Poland was infected by a revolutionary spirit, and must be suppressed “for the sake of the neighboring states”. Again the Diet made a strong resistance. All opposition was useless. The new parti- <sup>Second
Partition,
1793.</sup>

¹ The successor of Frederic II.

tion was executed by violence, and only a third of its ancient territory was left to Poland.

1794.

In 1794 one last expiring effort was made by the Poles, under the heroic Kosciusko, who had already valiantly fought for the cause of liberty under Washington in America. All in vain. Discord, treason, and, above all, the indifference of the mass of the nation, who were still sunk in serfdom, paralyzed the efforts of the patriots. The king, Stanislas, who for a moment had appeared to be stirred into enthusiasm, yielded to the threats of Catherine II. and the King of Prussia, and withdrew his support from the reforming party, under pretext of the all-pervading fear with which the French Revolutionists had inspired the hearts of the sovereigns. It had seemed possible that the cause of liberty should triumph; but the three powers that had already made the second partition renewed their alliance.

Third
Partition,
1795.

Catherine sent the terrible Souvaroff to crush the Poles. Kosciusko was wounded and taken prisoner, and ended his life in Switzerland. Praga, the beautiful suburb of Warsaw, was carried by assault, and given up to fire and sword. Thousands of the inhabitants were massacred. Warsaw, horrified at so much bloodshed, surrendered. Stanislas Poniatowski was ordered to abdicate, and "in the name of peace and order" the three powers divided the kingdom between them, and Poland was wiped out of the European map of nations. Prussia (Frederic William II.) received Polish Prussia and nearly all of Poland proper, from Posen and Warsaw to Grodno on the Niemen.

Austria (Emperor Francis I.) received Galicia.

Russia (Catherine II.) took Eastern Poland, Podolia, Volhynia, and Lithuania.

In 1832 the old kingdom of Poland was formally incorporated into Russia by a ukase of Nicholas I., Czar.

8

8

BOOK II.

8

8

NOTE.

It would be impossible to understand how Prussia came to hold such a prominent position in European affairs without reviewing its individual history; so we must retrace our steps to show the growth of the little electorate of Brandenburg, and the rise of the Hohenzollern family to their present zenith of power and importance at the head of the German Empire.

THE RISE OF PRUSSIA.

CHAPTER LIV.

THE MARGRAVATE OF BRANDENBURG OR BRANNYBOR.

IN the old days of the great Migration of Nations, a wild and warlike Sclavonic tribe of Wends¹ (Venedi), conquered after a time by the Borussi, came from their eastern dwellings in Central Asia, and settled themselves on the right bank of the Elbe.

Between them and the Germans there always existed the bitterest hatred; and in order to keep the savage Wends and Borussi in check, the Emperor **A.D. 928.** Heinrich I., the Fowler, established a "Count of the Marches" on the left bank of the river to prevent encroachments. This region was known as the "Nordmark". When one Count died, another knight was sent by the Emperor to take his place.

In 1133, Count Albert of Ballenstädt was appointed **Albert the Bear, 1133.** to the post. His courage was so great that he was nicknamed "the Bear," and his rule was wise and prosperous. He increased his territories, making them hereditary in his family; introduced clever workmen from Germany to teach the Borussi how to carry on industries and husbandry; taught them the German language and customs, and caused Christianity to be preached. He en-

¹ Some descendants of the original Wends are still to be seen in parts of Prussia, distinct in dialect, dress, manners, and customs from the present inhabitants.

Foundation
of Berlin.

couraged agriculture, founded several cities—of which Berlin and Spandau were the principal—and called his dominion the “Margravate of Brandenburg”.

Out of this Margravate sprang the mighty kingdom of Prussia.

The successors of Albert the Bear were prudent governors, and his family held the title of “Markgraf” until 1320, when the last Markgraf died without leaving a son.

THE TEUTONIC KNIGHTS.

1191.

The Teutonic knights were a military and religious order, founded about 1191 by Frederic of Swabia, through the humanity of the Germans (Teutons) to the sick and wounded in the Holy Land under Guy de Lusignan, before Acre. After the sixth crusade these knights were obliged to resign their hold over Jerusalem, and yield up the holy places to the Turks. On their way back to Europe they were invited by the Polish Duke, Boleslas V., to come and help the Poles against their fierce, barbarous enemies, the Borussi.

Marien-
burg.

The knights accepted the offer, and made themselves renowned by their conquest of Prussia and the provinces on the Baltic Sea. At first they fixed their headquarters on the Vistula at Kulm, then they founded the fortress of Thorn, and later they made Marienburg—lately built—their capital from 1309 to 1457, when they established themselves at Königsberg.

Decline of
the
Teutonic
Order.

But the knights soon became corrupted by the immense riches with which they had been endowed by the fervent piety of the Christians, and instead of keeping up their character for undaunted courage and devoted consistency of life, they gave way to self-indulgence and a love of display which gradually ruined the order, and contributed to the weakening of the very kingdom

which they had undertaken to support. It is told of one of the Grand Masters that he gave an entertainment to his knights, when the guests were served with thirty courses, and then allowed to carry away with them the gold plates and cups on which they had been served. Luxury produced vices of all descriptions, and the more the knights degenerated, the harder became their conduct towards the unfortunate serfs and other classes in their power, till at last the Prussians rose in revolt against the knights.

In the battle of Tannenberg, 1410, they called in the Poles to their assistance, and placed themselves under their protection. A large portion of the Teutonic possessions was incorporated into Poland in 1456, and into Brandenburg in 1521.

At this day when *Poland* has ceased to appear on the map of Europe, it is difficult to realize what a position it held in the fifteenth century, when at the height of its power its possessions reached from the Baltic to the Carpathians, and comprehended Poland, Lithuania, Western Prussia (taken from the Teutonic knights), Podolia (Volhynia), and the Ukraine or Little Russia within its limits.

Prussia was then only known as a *fief* of *Poland*.

When the successors of Albert the Bear died out, a long strife ensued as to who should inherit the Margravate of Brandenburg; and at last the German Emperor, Ludwig of Bavaria, decided to give it to his own son Ludwig.

Three Margraves of the Bavarian House ruled successively:—

1323. Ludwig I.

1352. Ludwig II. (*First Elector*).

1365. Otto the Sluggard.

The Emperor Charles IV. made Ludwig II. "Elector

Tannen-
berg,
1410.

Bavarian
House.

- of Germany," and from thenceforth Brandenburg ranks as an Electorate. The three Bavarian princes ruled badly, and Otto the Sluggard gave his lands back to the Emperor. Charles IV. took the management of affairs into his own hands, restored peace and order, and on his death his son Sigismund of Luxemburg became Elector of Brandenburg. The other son of Charles IV., Wenceslas the Drunkard, was on the throne of Germany leading such a scandalous life that Sigismund himself was proposed by one party of electors as far more suitable to take his brother's place; for as King of Hungary and Regent of Prussia, he was showing himself a despotic ruler. But there was considerable difference of opinion amongst the electors, till Frederic of Hohenzollern, Count of Nüremberg, undertook to obtain the general suffrage on behalf of his cousin Sigismund. He succeeded; and in 1410, on the death of Rupert of the Rhine, Sigismund was unanimously elected to take his place. In reward for his good offices, the Emperor Sigismund sold the Electorate of Brandenburg to Frederic of Hohenzollern for 100,000 ducats, and thus placed at the head of Prussia the present reigning family.
- 1378.
- Frederic of Nüremberg, 1415.
- 1417.

CHAPTER LV.

THE Hohenzollern House was divided in the fifteenth century into two branches, the Swabian and Franconian. Frederic of Nüremberg belonged to the Franconian branch. Hohenzollern Family.

The Hohenzollerns have been distinguished, ever since the days of this first Burggraf of Nüremberg, for certain excellent traits of character, which have been handed down to their descendants, and firmly stamped upon the members of the family. These characteristics have certainly helped to place the family in its present position, at the head of the greatest central European power of the day. Conspicuous amongst these qualities are thrift, strong common sense, a keen love of justice, indomitable courage, and a clear-sighted perception of what is most for the good of the country, and what is due from the sovereign, as the "Father of his people". This clear-sightedness, and single-hearted devotion to duty, activity of mind, and fixedness of purpose, give a power which is irresistible; the idea which they hold of their own position is that the sovereign is the "first servant of the State," and this begets the most absolute trust from all classes, and explains the attachment of the people for their king. The Hohenzollerns expect and desire to be looked upon as the "sovereign of the poor," they are men of incorruptible rectitude, and are enthusiastic educators.

Twelve electors of the same family followed Frederic of Nüremberg.

ELECTORS OF BRANDENBURG (HOHENZOLLERNS).

Twelve
Hohen-
zollern
Electors.

Electors only.	{	1415, Frederic I. of Nüremberg.
		1440, Frederic II. (Ironside).
		1470, Albert III. (Achilles).
		1476, Johann III. (Cicero).
		1499, Joachim I. (Nestor).
		1535, Joachim II. (Hector).
		1571, Johann George.
Dukes and Electors	{	1598, Joachim Frederic, m. Eleanor of Prussia.
		1608, Johann Sigismund, of Poland. <i>First Duke of Prussia</i> , m. Anne of Prussia.
		1619, George William.
		1640, Frederic William, the "Great Elector" King.
		1688, Frederic III. <i>First King of Prussia</i> .

1440. In the reign of Frederic II. (Ironside), Casimir of Poland assisted the Prussians against the oppression of the Teutonic knights.

1525. In 1525, Albert of Brandenburg, Grand Master of the Teutonic Order, renounced the Roman Catholic religion, embraced Lutheranism, and was acknowledged *Duke of East Prussia*, to be held as a fief of Poland. In 1544, he founded the University of Königsberg, and died in 1568, leaving two grand-daughters as heiresses of his dukedom.

1569. Prussia became a *Fief of Poland*.

1608. Johann Sigismund of Poland became Elector of Brandenburg, and Duke of Prussia, by his marriage with Anne, eldest grand-daughter of Duke Albert. The second grand-daughter Eleanor had married Joachim Frederic, elector in 1598.

CHAPTER LVI.

THE "GREAT ELECTOR".

WHEN Frederic William came to the throne at the age of twenty, his lands were lying waste, and his country was devastated by the Thirty Years' War, which had been raging for the last twenty-two years. In the cities more houses stood empty than inhabited, thousands were dying of hunger and pestilence; all commerce had ceased, the schools and churches stood empty, and only misery was to be seen on every hand.

Frederic
William,
Great
Elector,
1640.

Frederic William, with his tall, imposing figure, brilliant blue eyes, shining with the light of a dauntless courage, determined not for a moment to lose heart, but to see and judge for himself.

He travelled through all his dominions, and, being then thoroughly convinced of the distress of his people, he set himself to improve their condition.

He sent to Holland, Friesland, and Switzerland for workmen, to till the ground; gave farms to the old soldiers, and wood to build houses; for many years, spending his own revenue to enrich the country. Each peasant was compelled to plant an orchard; no countryman might marry, unless he had grafted six fruit-trees and planted six oaks. New roads were constructed, churches rebuilt; every village had its new school, fresh trades were started, and manufactures established. The rivers Oder and Spree were connected by the

Improve-
ments.

"Frederic William Canal," in order to facilitate commerce. The elector's wife, the pious and warm-hearted Duchess Luisa, strove in every way to assist her husband in his good works; and, amongst other things, she introduced the cultivation of the *potato*, which soon became a boon to the poor.

Potatoes.

Thirty]
Years'
War.

Unfortunately, these peaceful occupations were frequently interrupted by war. For eight years after his accession, Frederic William was forced to take part in the still raging Thirty Years' War. He embraced the reformed religion, separated himself from Austria, and joined with the Swedish King Gustavus Adolphus.

1643.

By the treaty of Westphalia he obtained possession of Halberstadt, Minden, Magdeburg, and other territories, with the Duchy of Prussia, and the Duchy of Cleves; and in 1657, he threw off the yoke of Poland.

1657.

His character for "Hohenzollern" rectitude of purpose was displayed even in his political movements.

Triple
Alliance.

When Louis XV. of France—desiring to annex Holland, as he had already annexed Spain—employed the most clever stratagems to dissolve the *Triple Alliance* of Holland, Sweden, and England, he set to work to win over the European powers to assist him. He gained the King of Sweden by the offer of subsidies, and the King of England (Charles II.) by promises of active assistance. The Emperor of Germany, Leopold II., was also induced to listen.

The Great Elector of Brandenburg was the only sovereign deaf to the persuasions of Louis XV. to overthrow a republic whose ruin would have been fatal to the interests of Protestant reform, to Germany itself, and indeed to all Europe.

Fehrbillen,
1675.

At the battle of *Fehrbillen* in 1675 the Elector defeated the Swedes, and won back the greater part of Pomerania.

This is considered the *starting point* of the rise of Prussia.

Frederic William died in 1688. A splendid statue, 1688. showing him seated on horseback, was erected on the long bridge at Berlin, with armed figures in stone lying at his feet, in remembrance of the Great Elector as prince, warrior, and Christian.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA.

CHAPTER LVII.

Frederic
III. (first
King,)
1700-13.

Kings of
Prussia.

Coronation.

Frederic I.

Frederic
William I.,
1713.

THE last Elector of Brandenburg was Frederic III., son of the Great Elector. As his territories increased, he desired fervently to raise Prussia to a kingdom; but this could not be done without the consent of the Emperor, and for a long time it was not attainable. At length, after Frederic had assisted Charles VI. in the war with Spain, known as the "War of the Spanish Succession," the Emperor conceded his wish in the Treaty of Utrecht; and the Elector crowned himself and his wife, Sophia Elizabeth, with great state at Königsberg, as *King and Queen* of Prussia. He is therefore called Frederic III. Elector, and Frederic I. King.

Frederic William I. succeeded his father. He was a strict, prudent man, rigidly economical, and very severe with his children; devotedly fond of his soldiers, whom he called his "blue children," and no expense was spared in providing for his favorite "Potsdam regiment," as long as men could be found over six feet to fill it. It is stated that men of the required height were taken out of any profession for the purpose, and that a regular system of kidnapping was carried on by hired ruffians. One instance given is that of a priest, snatched from the altar, whilst celebrating divine service, because he was tall enough to fill a vacant place in the regiment. Whether these accounts are exaggerated or not, much has been said against the king for the severity of his

actions. At the same time, he undoubtedly contributed much to the after prosperity of Prussia. He established compulsory education, the official system, and universal military service, filled the State coffers, and re-organized every department of his kingdom. He improved and raised the position of the peasants, a work which was afterwards completed by his son, who abolished serfdom altogether. On his death, Frederic William I. left a prosperous State, a standing army, and a well-filled exchequer, for the use of his son and successor, Frederic II., the Great.

CHAPTER LVIII.

Frederic
II., the
Great,
1740-86.

As a child, Frederic II. was of course destined by his father to be a soldier-king. At eight years of age he was dressed in uniform, and at eleven commanded on horseback a detachment of cadets; but his father's excessive strictness and often brutal severity with the boy, disgusted him, and rendered his life most unhappy. The young prince preferred to spend his time in reading and writing French poetry,¹ literature and music, rather than occupying himself with public affairs; and he was chiefly known at that time as a lover of letters, and the friend of Voltaire. His "effeminate tastes," as they were considered, frequently brought down upon him the fierce wrath of his stern father, and he was treated with such cruelty that at last, weary of the king's unnatural behavior, the prince left his home, accompanied by his friend and confidant, Lieutenant Katte, meaning to take refuge in England; he was captured and brought back to the palace; Frederic William was so furious that he gave orders to have his son shot as a deserter, and his life was only with the greatest difficulty spared by the entreaties of two of the king's officers. Katte was hanged before his eyes, and the prince himself put into prison. Even when released, he was kept more or less as a prisoner during the remainder of his father's life-

¹ The French writer Voltaire was the object of Frederic's great admiration, and he used to send his compositions to him for correction. Voltaire would contemptuously remark, "He is sending me some more of his dirty linen to wash".

time, though, after a while, their relations became of a friendly nature; and certainly the prince must have admired his father's devotion to the welfare of his kingdom, for he afterwards carried out his designs with appreciative zeal.

The death of his father raised Frederic II. to the throne of Prussia, and the new king soon showed that he surpassed all his predecessors in genius, military talents, and political ability, and was prepared to take his place amongst the sovereigns and captains of modern days. The great Elector had raised Prussia to the first rank amongst German States; Frederic II. raised it to the first rank of European power. One of the first acts of his reign was to proclaim war against Maria Theresa of Austria, for the purpose of winning back Silesia, which he had determined to annex permanently to the kingdom of Prussia.

FIRST SILESIAN WAR.

Nearly thirty years before this time the German Emperor Charles VI. had made the law called the *Pragmatic Sanction*,^{1740-2.} by which he left his dominions to his daughter Maria Theresa. The other nations of Europe had been induced to countenance the arrangement, and on her accession in 1740 to the hereditary kingdom of Austria, she desired also to be recognized, in accordance with her father's wish, as Empress of Germany in place of the other candidate, Charles VII. (see German Emperors). This claim gave rise to much dissension throughout Europe.

Frederic II. meanwhile claimed Silesia as an old fief of Brandenburg, and was determined to regain possession of it. With 30,000 men he crossed the frontier, and met the army of Maria Theresa at Mollvitz. The queen ~~Mollvitz.~~

Peace of
Breslau.

had said disdainfully, "A few hussar regiments will be sufficient to dislodge the Markgraf of Brandenburg!" She did not know Frederic. His two able generals, Schwerin and Dessauer, completely routed the Austrian troops; and Maria Theresa—occupied as she was with asserting her rights to Germany against the European powers—was compelled to make peace at *Breslau*, and bestow the longed-for Silesia on the King of Prussia.

SECOND SILESIAN WAR.

1744-5.

Hohen-
friedburg
and
Kesseldorf.

Treaty of
Dresden,
1745.

Frederic the Great felt assured that Maria Theresa would wrest Silesia once more out of his hands directly she should be free to enter into a new campaign. For this he was too crafty to wait; and accordingly, in 1744, he entered Bohemia and attacked the beautiful city of Prague. The Austrian armies went to the rescue, but Frederic overthrew one at Hohenfriedburg, and the other was dispersed by Dessauer at Kesseldorf. Again the baffled queen made peace, and again Silesia was confirmed to Frederic by the *Treaty of Dresden*, where he in return acknowledged Francis I. of Lorraine, the husband of Maria Theresa, as Emperor of Germany, Charles VII. having died in the early part of the year.

THIRD SILESIAN WAR, OR SEVEN YEARS' WAR.¹

1756-63

The peace made at Dresden lasted for eleven years, but Maria Theresa could not forget Silesia. In 1756 war was once more declared, and the European powers took sides in the quarrel.

Prussia's only ally was England. Against these two were ranged Austria, France, Russia, Saxony, Sweden, and Poland.

¹ See also chap. li., "Seven Years' War".

The brilliancy of Frederic's generalship in the numerous campaigns which followed compelled the admiration even of his enemies. He achieved victories over the Austrians at Prague and Leuthen, 1756; over the French at Rosbach, 1757; over the Russians at Zorndorf, 1758. But he met with heavy reverses at Kolin, Hochkirch, and Kunersdorf; and he would certainly have been forced to succumb to the superior number of his enemies, had not the death of Elizabeth, Empress of Russia, brought Peter III., a warm friend of Frederic, to the throne, when Sweden, following the example of Russia, withdrew from the contest, leaving Austria and Prussia to continue the war alone.

Prague,
Leuthen,
Rosbach,
Zorndorf,¹
Kolin,
Hochkirch,¹
Kuners-
dorf.
1759.

The Peace of Hubertsburg in 1763 at last brought it to a conclusion, and Frederic remained in possession of Silesia.

Peace
of Huberts-
burg, 1763.

It is said that the design of the partition of Poland¹ emanated from the brain of Frederic the Great; but it probably dates back to the days of Frederic I., son of the Great Elector, in 1710. In 1772 the unfortunate country was torn to pieces by the three gigantic powers of Prussia, Austria, and Russia; Prussia gaining all Polish Prussia as far as the Netz (except Danzig and Thorn); Austria and Russia each taking a share, and so completely annihilating the power of the Poles.

Partition
of Poland,
1772.

The last public act of Frederic the Great was the conclusion of a commercial treaty with the United States of America. Gout and asthma, which ended in dropsy, brought his life to a close at the age of seventy-five. He was a grand soldier, rapid and ingenious in seeing a way out of difficulties, cheerful in spirit; and from the kindness of his heart he was beloved by all classes, and commonly called by the people "Alte Fritz" (Father Fritz).

178..

Last days.

At the conclusion of the Seven Years' War, 1763, he

¹ See also chap. liii.

did much to improve and restore the country; and following the example of the Great Elector, he denied himself personal expenditure in order to increase agriculture, commerce, and the raising of beautiful buildings. One specimen of these is to be seen in his palace of "Sans Souci" at Potsdam, which is adorned with lovely terraces, gardens and fountains, and filled with the books and treasures dear to the king's heart. The rooms built in one wing for Voltaire, the long corridor, up and down which Frederic would pace playing his flute and absorbed in the thought of State affairs, are still shown. Here the great king died in the arms of his attendants, leaving no son to succeed him; and the crown passed to his nephew, Frederic William II.

CHAPTER LIX.

FREDERIC WILLIAM II.

ON the death of Frederic the Great, his nephew, Frederic William II., came to the throne in 1786. One of the first acts of his reign was to join England in restoring Holland to the Stadtholder William IV. in 1787. (The latter was unable to hold his position, however, for more than seven years, when, on the conquest of his country, 1795, by the French, he retired and died in England.)

The outbreak in France, the subsequent horrors of the Republic with its guillotine and assassination, roused Europe to arms in deepest indignation.

Frederic William II. could not look on unmoved. He entered into an alliance with England, Holland, Spain, Sardinia, and Austria, in order to stem the tide of anarchy and bloodshed which, beginning in France, threatened to overwhelm the whole of Europe. Frederic William joined the Emperor Leopold I. in assisting Louis XVI., and sent an army, under the command of the Duke of Brunswick, to the seat of war in Flanders. But this seemed to rouse the French to fresh fury. The allies were driven out of Flanders. The French Republican armies, under Pichegru and Jourdan, crossed the frozen Rhine, and conquered Holland, annexed Belgium, and took back all the German territory lying to the west of the Rhine.

In 1794 Spain and Prussia retired from the alliance,

leaving Austria to contend alone with the advancing conquerors.

Frederic William united with Catherine II. of Russia in arranging for the partition of Poland in 1793, and in 1795 he received his share of the spoliation of the unhappy country. (See Partition of Poland.) He died in 1797, leaving the throne to his son Frederic William III.

1797.

CHAPTER LX.

FREDERIC WILLIAM III.

WHEN Frederic William III. ascended the throne in November, 1797, Europe was in the wildest confusion, and the king found himself surrounded by distress and difficulties on all sides. In his troubles he had one constant helper and comforter in his faithful wife Louise, Princess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, the most beautiful and charming, as well as the most deeply religious, princess ever seen in Prussia. At first Frederic William displayed a vacillating policy. He joined the Armed Neutrality, formed by Russia, Sweden and Denmark against England, and seized Hanover and Bremen in 1801. Then he recognized the claims of Napoleon Buonaparte, and supported him against Russia; but on the abdication of the Emperor Francis II.—when Germany seemed to be under the feet of Napoleon, and all Europe was trembling at the mercy of the inexorable conqueror—Prussia turned against his encroachments, and dashed into the strife with splendid intrepidity. Saxony was invaded, but at Jena the Prussian army suffered a complete defeat.

The military power with which Frederic the Great had wrought such marvels half a century before was overthrown. Napoleon entered Berlin triumphantly, and announced the "Berlin Decree". The royal family of Prussia fled to Königsberg, and later to Memel on the frontier. Napoleon established himself in the beautiful

Frederic
William
III.,
1797-1840.

Armed
Neutrality.

1806.
Russia
takes the
lead.

Jena.

Berlin:
Decree.

Eylau,
Friedland.

Treaty of
Tilsit, 1807.

Queen
Louise.

1810.

palace of Sans Souci, and the French seized innumerable valuable works of art and sent them to Paris.¹ Then Russia came forward to aid Prussia, and two bloody battles were fought at Eylau and Friedland. Still Napoleon remained conqueror. With a bleeding heart Frederic William III. was forced to make peace at Tilsit, in 1807, giving up half his kingdom and 160,000,000 marks, and promising in future only to retain 42,000 soldiers. Prussia was reduced to the greatest straits. The bitter trouble into which her country was plunged went to the heart of the gentle Queen Louise, and she determined to try and move Napoleon to compassion by a personal interview. Her grace and beauty would have roused the pity of any one less inexorable, but he even forgot himself so far as to use language which no gentleman would have allowed. On one occasion Napoleon offered her a rose. She hesitated a moment, and then held out her hand with a lovely smile, "Yes, if you will give Magdeburg with it". "You will please to remember that it is not for you to ask. You have only to take what I choose to give," was the harsh reply of the Emperor; and he afterwards boasted that he had withstood her like "oilcloth against rain". The Queen sold all her jewels to help the poor, only keeping back one necklace of pearls, saying: "Pearls are emblems of tears, and I have shed *so* many!" The sorrows of her country broke her heart, and she died in 1810, charging her two sons—Frederic William and William, boys of fifteen and thirteen years of age—on her deathbed to win back their kingdom from France when once they should be grown to man's estate. She was buried at Charlottenburg, where, in 1840, her husband was laid by her side.

¹ They were afterwards returned through the intervention of the Duke of Wellington.

Frederic William set himself after the death of his beloved wife to restore some sort of order to his country, but he was met by countless difficulties. In 1812, he 1812. was compelled to furnish a contingent against Russia, in Napoleon's great campaign. From this time, the fortunes of Prussia are so mixed up with the affairs of Napoleon, and the universal European struggle against the usurper, that we must look to the era of Napoleon for the further rise of Prussian power, and its final supremacy in Central Europe. Frederic William III. called on his people to resist Buonaparte; in 1813, concluded the Treaty of Kalisch with the Russian Czar; shared in the Treaty of Kalisch, 1813. victories of 1813 and 1814; visited London, 1814; joined the Holy Alliance, September, 1815; recovered all his territories at the first Congress of Vienna; made a concordat with the Pope, 1821; joined the second Congress of Vienna, in 1822; obtained the free navigation of the Rhine, 1826, and died in 1840. 1840.

BOOK III

ERA OF NAPOLEON.

CHAPTER LXI.

LOOKING back a few years we find that Buonaparte's power daily grew more despotic, in spite of the coalition made between Austria, Prussia, and Great Britain against France in 1793. First Coalition, 1793.

In 1796, one French army under Moreau entered Germany, crossed the Rhine, and marched through the Black Forest to the Danube; another army under Jourdan entered Germany by the Main, but was beaten back by the gallant Archduke Charles of Austria, commanding the forces for his brother, the Emperor Francis II.; and this disaster caused Moreau also to retreat. The most decisive engagements were those in Italy. It seemed as if Buonaparte had the power of imparting electric force to his soldiers. By dint of genius and audacity he conveyed 35,000 of his troops, actually destitute of provisions of any kind, across the Alps, routed 60,000 Austro-Piedmontese troops, traversed the Po, entered Milan in triumph, and was received as a deliverer raised up to free the Milanese from the hated yoke of the Austrians. Advancing still further the French reached the Adige; twice over fresh Austrian armies were collected, but only to suffer defeat again at Castiglione, Arcola, and Rivoli. The famous stronghold of Mantua succumbed. The Italian States, seized with fear, offered terms of peace to the victorious Corsican, Campaign in Italy. Castiglione, Arcola, Rivoli, Mantua, 1796-7.

Capitulation of Vienna.

and Pius VI. gave up to France a considerable portion of the States of the Church. Venice rose in revolt, but in vain; the ancient Republic was suppressed. Thus master of Italy, Buonaparte turned his march towards Vienna. In vain the Austrians, under their bravest General, Archduke Charles, tried to stem the torrent of invasion. They were obliged to capitulate, and a peace was signed at Campo Formio, in 1797. The Emperor of Germany ceded to France his rights to Belgium and the Ionian Islands, receiving in return Venice, Istria, and Dalmatia, on condition that he would recognize the Cisalpine Republic (Lombardy, Modena, Ferrara, and the Romagna), and the Ligurian or Genoese Republic, both created by Buonaparte.

Peace of Campo Formio, 1797.

Campaign in Egypt, 1798.

In 1798, Buonaparte undertook his celebrated campaign in Egypt, in order to weaken the power of England in India, by stopping her commerce, and conquering the East. Unforeseen circumstances recalled him to France, and the campaign was abandoned as quickly as it had been begun. Whilst Nelson was destroying the French fleet in the Mediterranean, Buonaparte was making himself First Consul in Paris. His attention was next drawn to North Italy, which had been seized by the allied powers of Austria and Russia; and in the great battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden he reconquered Italy, and made a treaty with Austria at Lunéville (the terms of which were similar to those of Campo Formio), once more recognizing the Cisalpine and Ligurian Republics.

1799.
Second Coalition.

Marengo, Hohenlinden, 1800.
Treaty of Lunéville, 1801.

Fighting his way step by step to the giddy eminence that his soul longed for, Buonaparte engaged first one country and then another in conflict, and believing himself and his armies to be invincible, he made his course one continual triumph. Unfortunate persons who crossed his path or interfered with his designs were

remorselessly swept away. Pichegru, Moreau, and the Duc d'Enghien, last of the Condés, were the principal victims of 1804. Two months after the murder of the latter, Buonaparte was declared by the French Senate and Tribunal, "Emperor of the French". Pope Pius VII. came from Rome to bless the coronation; and the son of a Corsican advocate was at the head of one of the mightiest powers in Europe. Not content with having secured France, he next desired to annex the whole of Europe; one country after another yielded to him, and he placed his own kinsmen on the various thrones.

England, Russia, and Austria struggled in vain to stem the tide of victory; they could not withstand Napoleon I. At the terrible battle of Austerlitz—called the battle of the three Emperors (Alexander I. of Russia, Francis II. of Germany, on the one side, and Napoleon on the other, watching the battle from the heights)—the combined forces of Russia and Austria were completely defeated, and Austria compelled by the *Peace of Presburg* to give up much of her most beautiful territory, Istria, Dalmatia, Venice, Tyrol, etc.

1804.
Corona-
tion of
Napoleon I.

Third
Coalition.

Austerlitz,
1805.

Peace of
Presburg,
1805.

CHAPTER LXII.

Trafalgar,
1805.

THE struggle with Russia was only suspended; with England it continued, and England's "Austerlitz" was fought at sea by the English fleet under Nelson, who won the brilliant victory of Trafalgar, 20th October, 1805.

The Peace of Presburg was followed by fresh usurpations and distributions of crowns to Napoleon's brothers, sisters, and generals, who were, however, only to be considered as Buonaparte's lieutenants in the various countries.

1806.

Naples was given to Joseph Buonaparte.

Holland to Louis Buonaparte.

Eugène Beauharnais (Napoleon's stepson) was named Viceroy of Italy.

Murat, husband of Caroline Buonaparte, was made Duke of Berg.

General Berthier, Prince of Neuchâtel.

Germany was divided into portions.

Baden was made a grand duchy.

Württemberg, Saxony, and Bavaria, kingdoms.

The Emperor Francis II. abdicated the throne of Germany, and became Francis I. of Austria alone.

The German Empire, which had lasted nearly a thousand years, ceased to exist.

Confederation of the
Rhine,
1806.

The German Princes were united in the "Confederation of the Rhine," of which Napoleon himself was declared Protector.

The independence of Europe had never been in such

danger. In England the intrepid champion of liberty, William Pitt, died with the anguished cry on his lips, "O my country!" Still England was determined to make a desperate struggle for the rights of Europe, as well as for herself. Nothing could be expected of Austria after the crushing defeat of Austerlitz; but Prussia—which had been holding aloof from the contest, biding her time for a favorable moment to move—now indignant at seeing the partition of Germany, came forward to form a new coalition with England and Russia. Fourth Coalition. With admirable courage, Prussia took the offensive and marched into Saxony, which was upheld by Napoleon, only to be met by the invincible armies of Buonaparte; and notwithstanding the utmost exertions of the brave Prussian Generals Blücher, Colberg, and Grandenz, they were defeated in the battles of Auerstadt and Jena, Auerstadt and Jena, 14th October, 1806. fought on the same day; and the French made their triumphal entry into Berlin, declaring the Prussian monarchy to be overthrown, and launching the "Berlin Decree," Berlin Decree. which was to put a stop to all English commerce, and practically to place Great Britain in a state of blockade. This blockade was Napoleon's great stroke of policy. He desired to dominate Europe, but could not do so until he had subjugated England. On the other hand, he could not lower England without the previous subjection of Europe. This circular policy was fatal to him. In vain he tried to excite the other maritime powers to support him against the "tyranny of England on the sea". A new proof of England's supremacy was given in the attack on Constantinople in 1807 (September). The Continental Continental Blockade. powers were not ready to come to an open rupture with England; and, in fact, every effort made by the French Emperor to rouse them to resistance only made them the more anxious to keep *him* in check.

Advancing from Berlin onwards as far as Warsaw, Napoleon attempted, in spite of the lateness of the season, to attack Russia; but his troops were everywhere beaten back, and he was constrained to retire to winter quarters. Some weeks later the bold Russian General Beningsen thought to surprise the French by an unexpected attack, and an engagement—one of the most desperate on record—took place at Eylau. Sixty thousand dead and wounded men were left stretched on the snow fields; both sides declared themselves victors. Beningsen, in fact, retired, but Napoleon did not venture to follow him. The war re-opened in the summer of 1807, but this time it was short and decisive. The Russians were beaten at Friedland on 14th June, the anniversary of Marengo. Napoleon followed up his victory and reached Meinen. Here Alexander demanded a peace, which was signed at Tilsit, July, 1807. The King of Prussia ceded to Napoleon his Polish provinces and the territories he possessed between the Rhine and the Elbe. The former formed the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, and were now united with Saxony, which was erected into a kingdom. Out of the latter—together with Hesse, Brunswick, and part of Hanover—Napoleon constructed the new kingdom of Westphalia, and gave it to his brother Jerome Bonaparte. Prussia alone was called upon to pay in the Treaty of Tilsit. Not only did the Czar not lose anything; but, on the contrary, Napoleon gave up to him Sweden and Turkey, and acknowledged the partition of Poland. The only concession Alexander was called upon to make was to promise to adhere to the continental blockade against England.

Eylau,
Feb., 1807.

Friedland,
June, 1807.

Peace of
Tilsit, July,
1807.

Continental
Blockade.

Portugal having refused to adopt Napoleon's continental system, General Junot was sent to occupy the country, and the royal house of Braganza retired to Brazil.

The throne of *Spain* was wrested from the Bourbons 1808. and given to Joseph Buonaparte, whilst the place formerly occupied by him in Naples was filled by Murat, Napoleon's brother-in-law.

This gave rise to the Peninsular War between France and Spain (with the assistance of England), lasting five years. ^{Peninsular War,} 1808-13.

The Batavian Republic was turned into the Kingdom of *Holland*, and conferred on Louis Buonaparte.

Sweden was given to Bernadotte, Buonaparte's general, who governed wisely and well, and whose successors are still in possession of the throne.

The Helvetic Confederation was formed into the *Cantons of Switzerland*.

In 1809 Napoleon seized the remaining possessions of the Teutonic knights in Prussia, and abolished the order.

Pope Pius VII. was the first of Napoleon's allies who refused to carry out the Berlin Decree to shut out England from all commerce in Italy. Napoleon, annoyed by this want of support, seized the Papal States. The Pope in return excommunicated him. Absolutely regardless of this sentence, Napoleon sent troops to carry off the Pope, who was actually put in prison at Savona from 1809 to 1812, and only restored to his see upon the Emperor's downfall in 1814.

CHAPTER LXIII.

1809.
Fifth
Coalition.
Austria
and
England.

Taking of
Vienna.

Wagram.

Treaty of
Vienna,
1809.

Divorce of
Josephine,
Dec., 1809.

Second
Marriage,
1st April,
1810.

Birth of
Duke of
Reichstadt,
1811.

THE Peninsular War occupied Napoleon's attention for only four months of 1809, when, hearing that Austria with a revived army of 500,000 men had taken the field against him, he dashed over the Rhine, defeated the Archduke in Bavaria, bombarded Vienna, and carried his standard through the streets, having accomplished the whole affair in nine days. He then crossed the Danube to the left bank, fought an indecisive battle there, and pressed forward to the great battle of Wagram. It was a terrible day of slaughter and defeat for the Austrians; and Francis I. was compelled to sign the *Treaty of Vienna*, and yield up to Napoleon large territories containing 2,000,000 of his subjects. His favorite Tyrol was given up to Bavaria by Napoleon's orders, in spite of the heroic defence of the beautiful country made by Hofer, Speckbacher, and the brave friar, Haspinger, in which miracles of valor were performed by the patriotic Tyrolese. Yet, in spite of his hatred of the country, Napoleon set his heart on allying himself with Austria, thinking that with the ancient House of Hapsburg to support him, his position would be secured. So Josephine was divorced, and his marriage with the Archduchess Maria Luisa, daughter of the Emperor Francis I. of Austria, gave him the rank he coveted amongst the sovereigns of Europe. The birth of a son, on the 20th August, 1811, seemed to secure to him the foundation of a dynasty. The baby was immediately

created "King of Rome," and afterwards "Duke of Reichstadt," by his delighted father.

In the same year as Napoleon's second marriage, his brother Louis Buonaparte, King of Holland, resigned his uneasy throne, rather than carry out his brother's harsh edicts with regard to the continental blockade against England. Thereupon, Holland, together with Hanover, Oldenburg, and the free cities of Bremen, Hamburg, and Lübeck, were incorporated into the French empire.

The other European powers being now under his feet, Napoleon turned against Russia, making his pretext for war that the Czar had violated the Berlin Decree by reopening commerce with England. In 1812 Napoleon marched into Russia with 500,000¹ men and 1200 cannons, the conquered countries behind him each contributing a contingent. The Russians could not stand the first onset of such an army, and retreated, burning their villages behind them. Napoleon pressed on, and arrived at Moscow. Apparently deserted by the inhabitants, the ancient capital showed only empty houses and silent streets. A severe winter had set in, which taxed the French troops heavily, and they thankfully took up their quarters in the city, Napoleon installing himself in the Kremlin, the imperial palace. All seemed quiet and secure. But the night after their arrival fires broke out in all directions, lighted by the Russians themselves, who preferred to burn their beloved city to ashes rather than allow it to be a shelter for their enemies. The French troops fled from the flames, and found themselves out in the open country, exposed to such cold as has seldom been surpassed even in Russia, and to which they were totally unaccustomed. Napoleon, in despair, sent an entreaty to the Czar to make peace, but

Russian
Campaign,
1812.

Retreat
from
Moscow.

¹ Of this number Prussia was forced to furnish 20,000.

a stern refusal was the only reply; and the French army had nothing to do but to retreat to the frontier. But what a retreat! Far and wide no village or town was standing; no food or shelter was to be found. Storms of snow and ice burst over the heads of the unhappy soldiers. Each morning numbers of starving, half-frozen men were left lying helpless at the camp, only to be piked by the ferocious Cossacks who scoured the country on all sides, whilst the Russian cannon thundered perpetually around them. When the weakened army reached the Beresina, the most awful scene took place—thousands perished in the ice-blocked river. Napoleon himself fled in a sleigh, leaving his miserable troops, and made the best of his way to Paris. Out of the brilliant host of 500,000 with which Napoleon started, such vast numbers were killed in battle or perished with exposure to cold and hunger, or were taken captive by the Russians, that only 30,000 ever reached their own country. At the news of the retreat from Moscow, and the successes of Wellington in Spain, all Europe was excited, and all nations began to hope for deliverance.

CHAPTER LXIV.

MEANTIME, in Prussia Frederic William III. had been ^{War of Freedom, 1813-15-1} quietly preparing his people for a general war of freedom, and training every boy and man in Prussia to bear arms. On Napoleon's crushing defeat in Russia, he seized his opportunity, and, quickly forming an alliance with Russia, he called on the Prussians to be ready. The enthusiasm was so overpowering that men and boys, youths and old men offered themselves as volunteers. Women put on men's clothes and marched into camp. Ladies sold their jewels, ornaments, and even their wedding rings, and cut off their hair to raise money "for the Fatherland". Frederic William shed tears of joy at such a response to his call. On the 13th March war with France was declared.

It is amazing to think that after the ignominious arrival of the defeated Emperor in Paris on 18th December, 1812, Napoleon should have been able, at the end of four months, to take the field at the head of 350,000 men. But with the exception of Frederic Augustus of Saxony, all Europe was this time arrayed against their ^{Sixth or Great Coalition.} formidable adversary; even Bernadotte took part with the allies, and brought a Swedish army to their assistance. The first battle was fought at Lützen, close to ^{Lützen, 1813.} the "Stone of the Swede," the allied army taking the field under the fiery old cavalry officer, Blücher—who was so much beloved that he was known amongst his men as "Father Blücher," and so impetuous that he

was called "Marshal Vorwärts"; and Napoleon said of him: "He is like a bull rushing on danger with his eyes shut". This battle and that of Bautzen which followed were lost by the allies, but were of no avail to Napoleon's cause. The Prussians fought with such courage that Buonaparte himself exclaimed: "These are not the Prussians of Jena!"

Leipsic, the
Battle
of the
Nations.

After a truce of ten weeks the campaign reopened. Battle after battle was fought, till Napoleon gathered his exhausted forces together at Leipsic, and made his final desperate stand against his enemies. Every nationality, except the Turks, was represented on the field, so that it has been aptly called the "Battle of the Nations". It opened on the 16th October, and lasted for three days. At first, Napoleon beat back the allies; but his troops, composed of young men unaccustomed to the rigors of war, were worn out; and they were further weakened during the engagement by the defection of 10,000 Saxons, who went over to the allies. Napoleon resolved to retreat. He set his men in motion, and, leaving them in charge of the King of Saxony and the courageous generals, Marshal Macdonald and Prince Poniatowski, nephew of the last King of Poland, he left them. The retreat was most disastrous. Frederic Augustus of Saxony was taken prisoner. In spite of the most heroic efforts of the generals to protect the fugitives, numbers perished; and when they reached the Elster, they found that after Napoleon had crossed it in safety, the single bridge which spanned the river had been destroyed. Hundreds were drowned, and Prince Poniatowski, trying to swim his horse across, was dragged down and perished.

Retreat of
Napoleon.

Campaign
in France,
1814.

At the beginning of the following year the allied armies entered France, and Napoleon once more summoned all his energies to meet them and keep them in

check. Engagement after engagement took place with varying success, and hairbreadth escapes on either side. Suddenly, Napoleon made a feint of retreat towards the Rhine, thinking that the allies would follow him, and that he would be able to cut off their retreat. Instead of this, they only sent a general with 10,000 men in pursuit, whilst they themselves marched straight on to Paris, and the gates were opened to them on the 31st March by General Marmont. Napoleon was in absolute dismay at finding the allies in possession of the capital. When he reached Fontainebleau—too late to retrieve his fortunes—he was formally deposed by decree of the Senate, and on the 4th April he signed the deed of abdication. The little island of Elba in the Mediterranean was given to him as his territory. He took leave of his imperial guard, embracing their standard with fervent kisses, and on 20th April a British man-of-war conveyed him to his exile. His Austrian consort, Maria Luisa, made a few faint offers to join him; but eventually returned to her country with her father, the Emperor Francis I. of Austria. A few days after Napoleon's arrival at Elba, his faithful wife Josephine pined away, and died of a broken heart on the 29th May, murmuring the words: "Elba! Napoleon!"

Abdication,
of Na-
poleon.

Elba.

Death of
Josephine.

CHAPTER LXV.

- 1814.** **LOUIS XVIII.**, brother of the murdered King Louis XVI., was restored to the French crown, and peace was proclaimed. The allied princes conducted their armies back across the Rhine, and assembled at Vienna, to discuss the state of Europe. But a whisper had been circulated amongst the friends of Napoleon, "Corporal Violet will return in the spring"; and their token was his favorite flower. The spring came, and with it actually came Buonaparte, taking advantage of a ball given in his honor, to make his escape, and landing at Frejus, March 1st, whilst the Congress were pursuing their consultations by day and their festivities by night at Vienna. At the first sight of him, his old soldiers rushed to embrace him, and to escort him to the capital.
- Hundred Days.
The Congress
of Vienna.**
- 1815.** **LOUIS XVIII.** in Paris, seeing no friends at hand likely to support him, fled to Ghent, on the 20th March. On the same evening the Emperor's carriage dashed through the streets; and by midnight, Napoleon was once more quietly at work in his study in the Tuileries, as if his past reverses had been nothing but a dream. In three months' time 125,000 men were ready to follow him to the world's end.
- Napoleon's
Return,
20th
March.**
- Ligny,
Quatre
Bras, 16th
June.** The Prussians under Blücher and the English under Wellington met the brilliant army of Napoleon at Ligny and Quatre Bras. Blücher was wounded at Ligny; his horse was shot under him, and himself left on the ground, with his dying horse on top of him. The French stormed over him, without recognizing him, and

he was only extricated from his perilous position later in the day by some of his faithful Prussian followers. The next day Napoleon—standing under a tree, near the farm of Belle-Alliance at Waterloo—gave the order for attack on Wellington. The latter sent a message to Blücher, asking him to assist him with two regiments. “Not with two regiments, but with my whole army,” was Blücher’s reply. His physician warned him it would be dangerous for him to ride on account of his wounds. “It is all one to me, I must keep my word,” replied the old veteran. “Forwards, my children!” But it was easier said than done. The rain fell in torrents, and rendered the roads almost impassable, and the troops hesitated. “We *must* advance, possible or impossible. I have promised my friend Wellington; you would not wish me to break my word.” And they did advance. Arrived on the field of battle, they found the English—wearied by the long day’s struggle against superior numbers—placed in the most critical position, but still gallantly holding out. Blücher dashed in on the right, and helped to bring to a conclusion one of the decisive battles of the world. Wellington and Blücher shook hands; each congratulating the other on the honor of the victory. Nothing could be more complete than the discomfiture of the routed army; but so many valuable lives were lost on the field of Waterloo, that Wellington had good reason for saying that “a victory was the most dreadful thing in the world, except a defeat”. When Napoleon saw his favorite Old Guard driven back by the continuous fire of the English, he turned pale and exclaimed, “They are mixed together, it is all over!” and he rode away from the field in the dusk of the evening with all possible speed, whilst his carriage and equipments fell into the hands of the Prussians. Travelling to Paris, he sought his brother Lucien—always his

Waterloo,
17th June,
1815.

Death of
Napoleon,
1821.

comforter in trouble. Lucien suggested some further active measures, but met with such discouragement that he declared that "the smoke of the battle had turned his brain". Finally, Lucien drew up a second resignation in favor of the little Duke of Reichstadt, which Napoleon signed; and then he quitted Paris, and hurried to Rochefort, hoping to escape to America; but he was captured by the watchful English and obliged to surrender into their hands, one hundred days after his landing in France. He was banished to St. Helena, where his health rapidly gave way, and he died on the 5th May, 1821. His body was interred in the island; but in 1840 it was brought to Paris, and buried with magnificent funeral honors, in the Church of the Invalides, attended by royalty, and his only surviving brother, Jerome Buonaparte. The young Duke of Reichstadt died in 1832, at the court of his grandfather the Emperor of Austria.

Benefits
conferred
by Napo-
leon

Napoleon's divorce of Josephine was useless. Maria Luisa's only son, the Duke of Reichstadt, died; whilst Josephine's grandson, by her daughter, Hortense de Beauharnais, became the Emperor Louis Napoleon III.

With all his faults, and the bewildering confusion in which he placed the nations of Europe by his overweening ambition, Napoleon conferred some great benefits, which are still in use in France. He not only restored religion to the country, which had long been suffering from the want of all Church services, compelled by the atheism of the Revolution, but he instituted the civil code of laws called the "Code Napoleon," established the military schools, and constructed magnificent roads, wherever he desired passageway for his armies.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHAPTER LXVI.

THE nineteenth century has run its course and has brought important changes in the state of continental affairs. { Monarchical governments—the survival of the middle ages—have been transformed into constitutional monarchies. } “Public opinion” is the new power, which has taken the place of the “Divine right of Kings,” to which naturally follows the desire to take a certain personal part in the administration of public affairs, and to secure such constitutions as should guarantee the rights and liberties of the people. }

The last century opened with the conquests of Napoleon, and the strange sight of the whole of Europe convulsed and dominated by the audacity and vaulting ambition of a single man. International struggles occupied a large place in the nineteenth century, especially during the earlier years. Germany, at its opening, stood without a representative head (Francis II. having resigned the German crown in 1806). 1800-30.

After the Congress of Vienna in 1815, the various sovereigns were engaged in taking possession once more of their dominions, and encountering more or less difficulties in doing so. During those years several of the princes conferred new constitutions on their subjects; but the rights thus granted were merely nominal, and in the fear of socialist ideas spreading, as they had done in France, the liberty of the press was curtailed, and many

narrowing measures were taken. For instance, the Elector of Hesse—who had been deprived of his States, and then restored—pushed the idea of restoration to the verge of fanaticism, and issued an order that all soldiers should again wear their old head-dress, which had been discarded from its inconvenience, and that the officers promoted during his absence should be retrograded to their former rank. In defiance of this movement, patriotic societies were formed in Germany, in imitation of the Carbonari in Italy and France; and the students of the Universities all declared in favor of liberal ideas. But the generally-accepted voice of the nation was in favor of a grand political union, which should raise Germany out of its degraded position. Russian influence was especially dreaded. The poet Kotzebue, an agent of Russia, was known to transmit false reports of the state of the country to the Czar; and his assassination by a student of Jena named Sand, followed by that of the Duc de Berri in France, only roused a still stronger spirit of repression. The German Diet took the severest measures for stamping out the growing excitement; radical associations were broken up, newspapers suppressed, and professors deposed from office. This work of destroying political liberty, suppressing liberal tendencies, and restoring the despotism of the “ancien régime” was the especial object of the Holy Alliance, which assumed the right of interfering in public affairs as the “police of Europe”. England alone protested against such interference by one State in the internal affairs of another, and proclaimed the new principle of “non-intervention,” which has gradually become the basis of contemporary politics.)

(The great events which mark the latter half of the nineteenth century are: the proclamation of the third French Republic; the wars between Prussia and Den-

mark, and Prussia and Austria, making way for the re-establishment of the Empire of Germany; the formation of the Italian monarchy; the constitution of new States in the Balkan Peninsula, which practically meant the dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire; the triumph of constitutional government in nearly all the European countries; and the development of Colonial power in Asia and Africa.

AFTER WATERLOO.

CHAPTER LXVII.

AFTER THE DOWNFALL OF NAPOLEON

Second
Treaty of
Paris, 6th
July, 1815.

Holy
Alliance,
Sept., 1815.

Congress of
Vienna,
Nov., 1815.

Germanic
Confeder-
ation.

AFTER the Battle of Waterloo, the allies entered Paris in triumph for the second time; a second *Treaty of Paris* was entered into, and King Louis XVIII. firmly replaced upon the throne. The Emperors of Russia and Austria and the King of Prussia bound themselves in a "Holy Alliance," promising to carry on political transactions in the spirit of Christianity. Later in the autumn they met again at the Congress of Vienna, where a treaty was entered into, securing the division of the various kingdoms. A new German Alliance was formed, called the "Germanic Confederation," by which thirty-nine States¹ agreed that each should remain independent in all matters which concerned *itself alone*; a permanent Diet or Parliament, consisting of plenipotentiaries of the States, should hold its sittings at Frankfort-am-Rhein, the representative of *Austria* presiding. The members of the Confederation promised never to declare war against one another; there was to be a confederate army, to which each State should contribute according to its population; and all disputes were to be referred to the Diet.

¹ The principal were: (1) Austria, (2) Prussia, (3) Bavaria, (4) Saxony, (5) Hanover, (6) Würtemberg, (7) Baden, (8) Hesse, (9) Darmstadt, (10) Brunswick, (11) Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and Nassau, etc.

The first Diet was held November, 1816, the last August, 1866. This Confederation replaced the "Confederation of the Rhine," formed by Napoleon.)

The Congress of Vienna tried to make distinct political boundaries in Europe. The King of Sardinia recovered Piedmont and Genoa.

Terms of
Vienna
Treaty.

Belgium and Holland were united to form one kingdom. (This only lasted fifteen years; for in 1830 Belgium rose against the oppressions of Holland, and was declared by a National Congress an independent Kingdom, under Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, with a liberal constitution.) Bavaria received back the Palatinate of the Rhine.¹ Austria recovered Lombardy and Venetia. Prussia received part of the Kingdom of Saxony, all Swedish Pomerania, and the Duchy of Posen. Russia kept Warsaw (Varsovie), Finland, and the larger portion of Poland. Sweden received Norway, which had hitherto belonged to Denmark.

After the downfall of the great "disturber of Europe," Germany enjoyed a long time of peace, and was able to recover somewhat from its hardships and sufferings; but the Empire was not re-established. Since the foundation of the House of Hapsburg, Austria had been the ruling State of Germany, and had held its supremacy up to the time of Maria Theresa and the war of the Pragmatic Sanction; but Prussia had been for many years steadily rising in power; and the Napoleonic wars brought matters to an issue.

Rivalry of
Austria and
Prussia.

The Treaty of Presburg, December 6th, 1805, greatly reduced the Austrian territories; and the resignation of the Crown of Germany by the Emperor Francis in 1806, when so many of the princes withdrew their allegiance from Austria and formed the "Confederation of the Rhine," put an end to all semblance of the "Holy Ro-

End of the
Holy
Roman
Empire.

¹ Formerly known as the "Lower Palatinate".

Austria or
Prussia?

Zollverein,
1828

man Empire". As the power of Austria declined, that of Prussia increased. The enterprising Prussian Kings had raised the kingdom to such power and importance that it was becoming the leading power among the German States. The question which forcibly presented itself in 1828 was, "which of the two leading kingdoms should be paramount?" There was a strongly marked feeling growing up that Germany should cease to be a mere "bundle of States," but should become one united power. In 1828 Prussia became the centre of a commercial union called the "Zollverein," or "Customs Union," by which the States pledged themselves not to levy taxes on each other for merchandise passing from one to the other, but only on the merchandise of outside countries.

CHAPTER LXVIII.

FROM 1832 to 1848 there reigned a comparative peace almost all over Europe. After these sixteen years, although frequent wars broke out, they did not last so long, and were more localized than before. In 1840 Frederic William IV. came to the throne of Prussia with his romantic idealism, modesty, and earnest good-will in striving to better the condition of his country. He showed the devotion to duty so characteristic of his family, endeavoring to raise the culture of his subjects, and increase the happiness of his people.

The French Revolution of 1830 had but slight effect on Germany; but in 1848 the third French Revolution broke out, upsetting Louis Philippe, and re-establishing the Republic in France. By that time Europe also was in a blaze. New and powerful influences were at work, and the revolutions in Poland, Italy, Spain, Sicily, Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, Schleswig, and Holstein against their established Governments were stirred up by a rapidly spreading spirit of "communism". Germany was no less convulsed, and required complete reconstruction. An insurrection took place in Berlin (March, 1848), when the city was declared in a state of siege; the Prussian soldiers were obliged to retreat before the mob, and numbers fell victim to the struggle. With uncovered head the King himself stood watching the sad procession of bearers carrying away the corpses. Then he came forward as a *leader* of the agitation, and showed himself prepared to do his best to re-organize

Frederic
William
IV., of
Prussia,
1840.

the political affairs of Germany. FThe German National Assembly met at Frankfort with a view of giving Germany a federal constitution. Archduke John of Austria¹ was elected "Vicar of the Empire," and the Assembly offered the Imperial crown to the King of Prussia, but he declined it. The Assembly thereupon broke up into parties. The Republicans, indignant at the want of success in re-organizing Germany, revolted, and fresh insurrections broke out. That of Dresden lasted six days, and Prussian troops were called in to subdue it. The Assembly transferred its sittings to Stuttgart; and after vain attempts to establish a new government on a better footing, they resorted again to the old former Diet. The movement of 1848, however, was not without result for Germany. It countenanced patriotic aims, which later on became the basis of the great political transformation of 1871.

1850. Reaction was bound to follow the excesses of the revolutionary excitement; but the "liberty of the people" became gradually established as a necessary fact, and various useful concessions were made by the sovereigns.

1854-56. Then came the grand international struggles of the Crimean and Italian wars, during which time the French Emperor Louis Napoleon III. was prominent in European affairs. Illness compelled Frederic William IV. of Prussia to resign the reins of government

Resignation of
King Fred.
Will. IV.
1857.

¹ In 1848, Ferdinand, Emperor of Austria, died, and was succeeded by his nephew, Francis Joseph. The Hungarians were struggling gallantly for independence, but—with Russian help—the young Emperor put down the insurrection. In 1867, a new constitution for Hungary was instituted, with separate Parliaments, but one sovereign, and the Emperor and Empress were crowned King and Queen of Hungary. The Dual Empire is, however, a mass of heterogeneous communities with different habits, customs, and languages.

into the hands of his brother William, the chivalrous, high-souled soldier who had served in the campaigns of 1813 and 1815, and had proved his devotion to his brother and country by taking upon himself the odium which must otherwise have attacked the king, when opposition to a requisite change in the constitution, refused by the king, brought down the hatred of the radical party. Prince William had actually taken all the blame of this refusal on himself, and had suffered exile rather than allow unpopularity to touch his brother. In 1857 he was made regent, and crowned King 1861, to the unbounded joy of the army, who had always believed in him, and who now hailed his rise to power with enthusiasm. (Frederic William IV. died in March, 1888.)

NEW GERMAN EMPIRE.

CHAPTER LXIX.

THE RE-ESTABLISHMENT OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

William I., THE accession of King William I., the younger son of the beautiful Queen Louise, marks an important epoch in the history of Prussia. Since 1848 Germany had been longing for greater political unity. But the antagonism of Austria and Prussia, and the general panic created by the revolution in France, had wrecked all attempts at re-organizing the country on a national footing. The coming to the throne of the soldier-king William changed the position of Prussia; for the new sovereign—faithful, brave, and high-souled—was from the first resolved to place Prussia at the head of the German Confederation, and to establish the government on a military basis. In the accomplishment of this work, his able minister Bismarck was his right hand, displaying the same constant activity and keen-sighted ability as his master. The king was an enthusiastic soldier, and he felt that the first imperative necessity was to re-organize the army. With Bismarck behind him, he set to work, and carried through his reforms with a high hand, in the face of very considerable opposition. Meantime the relations between Austria and Prussia were so strained and unsatisfactory that Bismarck declared in Parliament that “the German problem could only be solved by blood and iron”.

The all-absorbing difficulty called the "Schleswig-Holstein question" was made the pretext for war. The two duchies revolted against Denmark. They¹ were encouraged by Prussia and opposed by Austria. For a considerable period they had been considered part of the Danish kingdom, but they preserved their national feeling for Germany, and their laws of administration and succession to the duchies differed from those of Denmark. In 1863 King Frederic VII. of Denmark died, and the royal house was extinct in the male line. A convention made in London some time previously, and to which the Grand Powers gave their adhesion, had arranged that the crown should pass to Christian IX., a member of the collateral branch of the reigning house. But Schleswig and Holstein refused to recognize King Christian, and declared they would have Frederic of Augustenburg, son of another collateral branch, instead. The German Confederation intervened in favor of the duchies, and for once Austria and Prussia allied themselves together against Denmark. A brief war ensued; the Danes were conquered, in spite of a vigorous resistance, and gave up all claim to the two duchies, upon which Austria took possession of Holstein, and Prussia of Schleswig. The other German States were none of them, however, contented with this arrangement, and before long war broke out between them.

Schleswig-
Holstein
War, 1863.

CHAPTER LXX.

SEVEN WEEKS' WAR BETWEEN AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA.

Seven
Weeks'
War, 1866.

Custozza.

Sadowa
König-
gratz.

The Red
Prince.

ITALY united with Prussia and the small Northern States to declare war against Austria; whilst Austria had for allies Hanover, Saxony, the two Hesses, Bavaria, and Würtemberg. For a time Austria was successful, and the Italians were defeated at Custoza by the Archduke Albert; but the Prussians, armed with needle-guns—breech-loading rifles of new construction—invaded Bohemia, under the command of King William I.; and a decisive battle took place at Sadowa, near Königgratz. The Austrian army, under Marshal Benedek, was strongly posted, having the fortress of Königgratz in its rear.

The Prussians were separated into three divisions, the first under the Crown Prince Frederic William, the second under Prince Frederic Charles (the nephew of King William), and the third under General von Bittenfeld. From three different positions they advanced upon the enemy—King William, Bismarck, and Roon, the Minister of War, watching their movements in person. When the signal was given to open attack, only two of the Prussian divisions were on the spot. The first division, commanded by the Crown Prince, was still at seven hours' distance. The battle raged on all sides; and so close to the place where the Prussian king was standing that the bullets fell within a few paces, and Bismarck drew his attention to them, and begged him

to move back to a safer position. "I can't ride away," cried the king impatiently, "when I see my soldiers standing in the fire."

The Austrians fought like lions. If the Crown Prince should not arrive in time all would be lost!

At last, at ten o'clock, the prince rode up, and, immediately without a halt, rode straight to the attack, followed by 50,000 men. With renewed courage the Prussians pushed forward, and the enemy sustained a complete defeat. The Austrians lost 170 cannons, 11 standards, and 40,000 men. King William embraced his brave son on the field of battle, and fastened to his coat the military "Order of Merit".

The Emperor Francis Joseph sued for peace, and the terms were arranged at the Treaty of Prague, by 1866.
which—

- I. Austria gave up to Prussia all her rights in Schleswig-Holstein, and abandoned her claim to take part in the re-organization of Germany.
- II. A new "North German Confederation" was formed, with Prussia at the head, and Count Bismarck as the Chancellor. It was agreed that all the lands north of the Main should form this North German Confederation.
- III. Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, the Hesse States, Nassau, and Frankfort-am-Main should belong to Prussia.
- IV. The South German States should remain neutral, but ally themselves with Prussia in case of war.

This Confederation replaced the "Germanic Confederation" of 1815.

CHAPTER LXXI.

FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR.

1870-71.
Reason of
the War.
1868.

THE prominent position to which Prussia had risen was a source of bitter jealousy to the French, who longed for a war which should humble their old enemies. A pretext was not long wanting. In the year 1868 the Spaniards, wearied with the bad government of their country under Queen Isabella II. and her favorites, Narvaez and Godoy, deposed her, and after many disputes at length offered the crown to Leopold, Prince of Hohenzollern. The French immediately interfered, declaring that a German king on the throne of Spain would upset the balance of power in Europe. England also considered the move undesirable for the same reason. Neither King William of Prussia nor his relative Prince Leopold was anxious that he should retain the post, and the prince withdrew. There the matter might have ended; but in the summer of 1870, when King William was drinking the water at Ems, the Emperor Louis Napoleon III. sent his envoy Benedetti to interview the king, and to insist on the following terms being brought forward:

1870.

- 1st, That Germany should apologize for ever having put forward Prince Leopold; and,
- 2nd, That the King of Prussia should promise that no German prince should ever sit upon the throne of Spain.

This outrageous proposal was of course refused, and Benedetti returned to his master.

King William, seeing that war was inevitable, started at once for Berlin, and called a Council, giving orders to have all preparations made immediately. War was declared by the French on the 19th July. All Germany rose as one man. Every one of the States declared for the King of Prussia, and heartily joined in the defence of their beloved "Vaterland".

19th July
1870.

France was not prepared for this; she had counted on, at least, having the southern States of Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden, on her side, and was greatly disconcerted at finding the *whole* of the great German Confederation arrayed against her. Moreover, the Emperor Louis Napoleon had declared war to please the people, and without sufficient assurance that the country was in a fit state to undertake it. He himself, though a man of personal courage, was no soldier, no tactician. He had occupied himself with the affairs of State, and had done much in giving employment to the working classes by beautifying Paris, little thinking how soon it was to be destroyed by its frenzied inhabitants; but the army, on which the defence of his country was to depend, was undisciplined, unprovisioned, and above all, ungeneraled.¹ Tired of the quiet want of interest of the last few years, the French nation—always ready to fight their national enemies—clamored for war. The war in Italy had been a mere bagatelle; they insisted that "they would march straight through Germany and enter Berlin *en fête*". Regardless of preparations, they only asked for leave to start; and war was accordingly declared before the army was mobilized. The French troops hurried to the frontier, but without supplies, and without the requisite munitions of war.

¹ The Plebiscite or popular vote on the altered Constitution in France showed grave discontent in the army and drove the Emperor to proclaim war to distract the soldiers and win popularity.

On the other hand, only a few days after the declaration of war, the vast German army was in readiness, trained, disciplined, provisioned, with such tried generals at its head as the Commander-in-chief von Moltke, and Steinmetz of the army on the Moselle, the Red Prince Frederic Charles in the Rhine Palatinate, and the Crown Prince ("Fritz") on the northern frontier of Alsace. Besides the army in the field, they had three separate reserves of 188,000, 160,000, and 226,000 men placed in position, one behind the other. Moreover, the whole plan of the forthcoming campaign had been mapped out beforehand by the prudent forethought of the king, Bismarck, and von Moltke. The latter warrior was a veteran of seventy years, yet with the undaunted courage of a youth, who had stored up all his experience of military tactics for such an emergency as the present, and was ready with everything down to the minutest detail. His principle was to attack on three sides at once, and then concentrate in the middle. What chance could there be for unfortunate France in such an unequal contest?

1870.

Saar-
brücken.Weissen-
burg,
Gaisberg,
Wörth.Siege of
Metz, 14th
Aug.

The French Emperor, accompanied by his son, the Prince Imperial, a handsome boy of fourteen, came to Metz to direct the campaign. At the opening engagement at Saarbrücken the Prussians could not withstand the fiery onslaught of 40,000 French, and retired, but in good order. The French were delighted, thinking the business was as good as ended. But the Crown Prince drove the French out of the fortress of Weissenburg, and took Gaisberg; he routed the enemy again at Wörth and opened up the passes of the Vosges Mountains. This was their first important victory. Then after various smaller engagements, the Prussians, always steadily advancing, concentrated round Metz, the centre of the French army. Bazaine held the city in the absence of

the Emperor, who had hurried to Paris to quell an agitation there. Determined to defeat the enemy at all hazards, Bazaine made three sorties: one at Courcelles; he was met by Steinmetz and forced to retire into Metz; the other at Mars-la-Tour, where the Red Prince withstood him for twelve hours, and forced him back to the city; and once more at Gravelotte he was defeated by King William himself. At length he found himself shut up in Metz, with Germans surrounding him on all sides; this lasted for ten weeks, when hunger and misery compelled him to open the gates, and 173,000 men and 50 officers fell into the hands of the Prussians as prisoners.

Courcelles,
Mars-la-
Tour,
Gravelotte,
27th Oct.

Meantime the march of the German army to Paris began in earnest; but on the way—hearing that a large force under Marshal MacMahon and the Emperor of the French was coming to the relief of Bazaine—the Germans turned towards Beaumont, and were successful in the battle of the 30th August. Another battle was fought at Sedan, on the 1st September, where the French were hemmed in on all sides, with 500 cannons surrounding them, and found it impossible to defend themselves against the enemy. From four o'clock in the morning till five in the evening the battle raged; and then the Emperor wrote to King William of Prussia: “As I have not had the satisfaction of dying at the head of my troops, I hand over my sword to your Majesty”. Next day Napoleon left Sedan to meet the German Chancellor at the house of a poor woman at Donchéry, and afterwards King William at the little château of Bellevue near Frenois. The whole French army of 83,000 men were delivered up as prisoners. Louis Napoleon III. was sent to the castle of Wilhelmshöhe; but when the war was over, he was allowed to retire to England, where he died in 1873. The astonishing

March to
Paris.

Beaumont,
30th Aug.

Sedan,
1st Sept.

2nd Sept.

rapidity of this campaign will be realized when we remember that the first movement of the German army was made on 4th August, and that on 2nd September the French Emperor was a prisoner, and his army in the hands of his enemies.

A revolution broke out in Paris on the news of Louis Napoleon's surrender, and a Republic was proclaimed, with a "Government of National Defence" at its head.

Siege of
Paris.

On the 5th September the German army entered Rheims, and on the 15th they reached Paris. They surrounded the city in a complete circle, so that no provisions could be got into it. The King of Prussia took up his position at Versailles. Armies were formed in different parts of France to try to stem the current which threatened to overwhelm France; but all was in vain. One division of the army of the Loire, under General Aurelle de Palladines, was defeated by the Red Prince at Orleans; the other, under Chanzy, also failed against the Red Prince. The army of the North, under Faidherbe, was repulsed in confusion by General Manteuffel at Amiens, and finally scattered at St. Quentin; and at Belfort, General von Werder drove the army of Bourbaki completely out of France, and they took refuge in Switzerland.

1871.

Meantime the siege of Paris continued from 19th September, 1870, to 28th January, 1871. Then the great city capitulated, and on 1st March the Prussians entered Paris as victors. Strasburg, Toul, Verdun, Breifach, Pfalzburg, and Belfort opened their gates, and the war was at an end.

Peace of
Frankfort,
10th May,
1871.

Peace was signed at *Frankfort-am-Main*. France had to give up Alsace and Lorraine, and to pay five milliards of francs as indemnity (£200,000,000). Out of forty-nine battles, not one was gained by the French. Twenty fortresses were taken from them; 400,000

French soldiers were taken prisoners to Germany; 7000 cannon and 80,000 muskets fell into the hands of the Prussians. It was truly a war without parallel. The sad cry of the unfortunate French soldiers—"Trahis! Trahis!" ("Betrayed! Betrayed!")—gives the clue to their utter failure. They had been led to the war like sheep without any efficient guides, or any head to suggest a plan of strategy. Germany was the gainer in every sense by her victories. At last the many states were united in a firm alliance, and after sixty years without an Emperor, they determined to re-establish the German Empire on a new and consolidated basis; and even whilst guarding the gates of Paris, they called on the King of Prussia to accept the imperial crown. On 18th January, 1871, "Kaiser Wilhelm" was crowned at Versailles amidst the rejoicings of his army. On his return to Berlin, he was received with indescribable enthusiasm. They were not the fitful acclamations of an easily led crowd, but the true rejoicings of a people that had learnt to truly love and trust in their ruler, whose wise, firm rule gave Germany a term of peace for the rest of his reign. The deepest grief filled all hearts when he was called to his rest on 9th March, 1888. His earnest goodness, kindness, firmness, modesty, and, above all, his humble reverence for holy things, were very striking. The energy of his character was shown even on his deathbed, when, after frequent repetitions of the touching cry for his beloved son—"Fritz! lieber Fritz!"—his last words to his daughter, the Archduchess of Baden, were: "I have no time to be tired," and he fell asleep in death.

Coronation
of the
Emperor
William I.,
1871.

CHAPTER LXXII.

UNIFIED GERMANY.

THE declaration of the great Chancellor that German unity could be accomplished only by "blood and iron" had its fulfilment, for it was through the Franco-Prussian War that national unity was achieved. Men of different races and states forgot their rivalry and their animosities when they marched shoulder to shoulder for the defence of Germany. In warring against a common foe, all sectional prejudices were forgotten and hearts were knit together in a common loyalty to the Fatherland. France forced war upon Germany and ignorantly helped her to achieve unity.

King William of Prussia is asked to become Emperor.

After the Battle of Sedan, King William of Prussia took up his quarters at Versailles, and ambassadors came to him from the Southern States and Duchies to agree upon some form of union. On November 30, 1870, King Ludwig of Bavaria addressed an open letter to the heads of the different governments asking them to make the King of Prussia the head of united Germany, with the title of German Emperor. When favorable replies were received from all the states, Prince Luitpold of Bavaria, as representative of the most important of the Southern States, tendered the imperial crown to King William, on [December 3, 1871]. In an open letter to the German princes and potentates, King William announced that he was willing to accept the crown, not with a desire for military conquest but

PRUSSIAN GERMAN EMPIRE XIX Century.

Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300



"to constitute an empire of peace and prosperity in which the people of Germany might find and enjoy that for which they had sought and struggled".

After prolonged and heated discussions, treaties of union were finally signed, by which the Southern States of Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt were united with the North German Confederation and all were welded together under the name of the German Empire. The fusion of the Northern and Southern States into one imperial government gave Germany a place among the leading powers of Europe and made possible her later material progress and development as a nation. By a proclamation of the Reichsrath, or general Council of the nation, the new Empire began its existence on January 1, 1871, but the papal party of Bavaria still opposed the union, and the coronation of the Emperor did not occur till January 18.

Union of
the States.

Fate, with cruel irony, decreed that the new German Empire should be proclaimed in the throne room, or "Hall of Mirrors," of the favorite palace of Louis XIV. at Versailles, where so many plans had been made by Louis XIV. and by Napoleon to humble Germany and to crush out her national life. Here occurred one of the most imposing and most momentous ceremonials of the century, the coronation of Emperor William I. of Germany, on January 18, 1871, the one hundred and seventieth birthday of the Prussian Kingdom. An altar had been erected in the great mirrored hall, and religious services were conducted by Court-preacher Rogge. King William sat in front of the congregation with the Crown Prince, Bismarck, Von Moltke, Roon, and other officers near him, and a company of flag-bearers with the ensigns tattered and blackened in war, mute witnesses of the victory over the French. The

Coronation
of Emperor
William I.

service began with an anthem by a military choir, followed by a prayer, a sermon, and the oft-sung choral "*Nun danket Alle Gott*". At the close of the service, King William ascended the dais and, in a brief address, accepted the crown for himself and his successors. The proclamation of the Emperor to the German people was read by Bismarck, and the Grand Duke of Baden, William's son-in-law, going quietly to the front of the assembly, called out, "Long live his Imperial Majesty, the Emperor William!" Then the palace of the Kings of France rang with huzzas to the Emperor of the new Germany.

The first
Imperial
Diet.

The new Diet met at Berlin on March 21, in the historic White Hall of the old palace, and was opened by the Emperor with a speech from the throne, in which he promised his subjects a reign of peace, with no interference in the affairs of other nations.

Constitu-
tion
adopted.

The constitution adopted at the close of the war with Austria was modified to meet the needs of the new Empire and went into effect April 16, 1871. The legislative power was vested in the *Bundesrath* (Federal Council), composed of representative princes, appointed by the state governments; and a *Reichstag* (Imperial Diet), consisting of deputies elected by the people. The King of Prussia was to be Emperor, the title and Empire being hereditary. There was to be one army, one navy, one system of weights and measures, one custom-house frontier, uniform coinage and postal laws, and one diplomatic system. The constitution of 1871 was similar in many respects to that of the Confederation, but it provided that imperial laws should take precedence of the laws of the separate states. The Confederation had been a league of independent states, each maintaining its right of sovereignty in its own affairs. The new constitution diminished the power

of the states by vesting the executive authority in the Emperor and his Ministry.

As one historian remarks, the history of Germany ^{Bismarck's Work.} for the following twenty years is practically the biography of Bismarck, since his name is indissolubly linked with all state affairs of this period. During the years after the Franco-Prussian War, there was no busier man in all Europe than Bismarck. He held three distinct offices, and as chancellor of the German Empire, premier of Prussia's cabinet, and Prussian secretary of foreign affairs, he was the hardest worker of the age. About a thousand telegrams and letters were received by him every day. The first thing that he and Emperor William did for the Empire was to increase the army, not for the sake of conquest but for protection. Then they proceeded to decide upon a uniform system of weights and measures, uniform monetary values and postal regulations. During the discussion of these measures in the Reichstag, the four great political parties took their stand: the Conservatives, the National-Liberals, the Clericals or Ultramontanes, forming the Centre, and the Social-Democrats.

The great event in continental affairs of 1872 was ^{An Informal League.} the meeting at Berlin of the three Emperors of Russia, Austria, and Germany, and their chancellors,—an event brought about by Bismarck's diplomacy. Alexander II., Francis Joseph, and William I. entered into an informal alliance or league of peace. There were no written obligations, but only a friendly understanding. This alliance convinced the other European nations that the three powerful military governments intended to maintain peace with each other. This informal league was replaced, several years later, by the Triple Alliance.

The French territory of Alsace-Lorraine, which had ^{Alsace-Lorraine.}

been annexed to Germany, was inhabited by people who were German by birth but French in feeling, and rather than submit to German rule, more than forty thousand of them emigrated to France. Germany granted them their choice in the matter, but all who remained in the territory became German subjects on September 30, 1872. How to govern the territory and preserve amicable relations with its people has been a problem for Germany up to the present time.

The
Kultur-
kampf.

The event of the reign of Emperor William I. which was of greatest importance to humanity at large was the Kulturkampf (civilization-battle), a conflict between Church and State, Bismarck being pitted against the Ultramontane or papal party. Frederic William IV., through the influence of his wife, Elizabeth, a bigoted Romanist, had made such concessions to the Roman Catholics of Prussia that they were ready to ride rough-shod over the laws of the land. Bismarck felt himself called upon to put down their arrogant pretensions. The struggle began in 1871, when the doctrine of papal infallibility was forced upon German ecclesiastics. The Archbishop of Cologne threatened to dismiss some of the theological professors at Bonn if they did not recognize the dogma, and a teacher at Braunsberg was excommunicated because he refused to teach the doctrine. This brought matters to a crisis, and Bismarck demanded that the Catholic section of the Prussian Ministry of Public Worship be abolished. In January, 1872, Dr. Alfred Falk was appointed Minister of Education and Worship, and a new school law, called the Falk Law, was passed, placing the educational system under state control. This roused the ire of Pius IX. and he refused to recognize Germany's ambassador, Prince Hohenlohe. In a debate in the Reichstag upon the relations with the

Vatican, Bismarck uttered the memorable words: "To Canossa we shall not go".¹ The bishops united in a declaration against the Chancellor and he retaliated by expelling the Jesuits from the realm. In May, 1872, the celebrated May Laws were passed, which restricted in every possible way the power of the Romish Church, authorizing the State to control theological seminaries, to examine candidates for the priesthood, to approve or reject ecclesiastical appointments, and to regulate all ecclesiastical discipline. These laws were enforced by fine, imprisonment, and exile. A Civil Marriage Law soon followed, and a Cloister Law, expelling from Prussia all religious orders. It was while this struggle was at its height that an attempt upon Bismarck's life was made by a fanatical youth, Kullmann. Some critics feel that Bismarck appears in his worst light during this struggle and he is called "intolerant as the Inquisition". But the great Chancellor looked upon the State as a political institution. It was not a question with him whether Protestants or Catholics should rule, but whether the authority of the Emperor should be superior to that of the Pope. To yield to the supremacy of the Pope meant destruction of the national life. Bismarck's mistake was in method rather than in principle. He wisely saw, as the conflict waxed hotter, that he must adopt less rigorous measures. Moreover, the revenues of the Empire had proved insufficient, and in order to pass his protective tariff bill, the Chancellor had to have the support of the papal party. With the accession of Leo XIII., in 1878, concessions were made on both sides. A compromise was effected, and in 1882 the

¹ These words are inscribed upon a monument to Bismarck in the yard of the old castle at Harzburg, the favorite residence of Emperor Henry IV.

May Laws were revised and restrictions upon the clergy removed. In May, 1887, all laws against the Roman Catholic Church which had been passed since 1871 were repealed. In the long conflict with the papal party, Bismarck's health began to give way, and several times he expressed a wish to resign the chancellorship, but the Emperor would not consent.

Socialism.

In 1878 two attempts were made to assassinate Emperor William. On May 17, as he was driving on *Unter den Linden*, a socialist fanatic, Hödel, fired several shots at him, inflicting only slight injuries. About two weeks later, another socialist, Dr. Karl Nobiling, fired upon the Emperor, wounding him severely. Hödel was tried and executed; Nobiling committed suicide. Crown Prince Frederic became regent during his father's convalescence, and, by his gracious bearing, bound the hearts of the people to him. These attempted assassinations turned the attention of the government to the growing evil of socialism. There were at that time sixty thousand socialists in Berlin and nearly half a million in the Empire. At the demand of Bismarck, stringent laws against socialism were passed, aiming to suppress their meetings and their newspapers. Such rigorous measures only provoked greater antagonism, and an attempt was afterwards made to remove the causes of discontent. In 1881, the message of the Emperor to Parliament advocated measures for bettering the condition of the poor, which resulted later in compulsory state insurance. Emperor William's great popularity began with this message, which showed his paternal feeling for his subjects, and his earnest desire to contribute to their welfare.

**Berlin
Congress.**

After the Turko-Russian War, Russia, Turkey, France, and England were involved in complications,

and Bismarck offered his services as an "honest broker," inviting the five great powers and Turkey to a conference at Berlin, which was held in Bismarck's palace, from June 13 to July 13, 1878. This Congress was of universal interest and of great importance in world history, because it showed the position and character of the new Empire of Germany, and marked the dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire.

In this conference, Bismarck favored Austria more than Russia and this led to a breach of the informal alliance of 1872. Russia, indignant at what she deemed unfair treatment, withdrew her friendship from Germany, although Emperor William wanted to maintain friendly relations with her. Fearing a coalition of Russia with France, the two Emperors of Germany and Austria-Hungary formed, in 1879, an "alliance of peace and mutual defence," which was joined by Italy several years later, forming what is known as the Triple Alliance or *Dreibund*. This alliance was regarded as a master stroke of Bismarck's diplomacy, for the preservation of Germany's national life has been largely due to its existence. The Alliance has been renewed three times, but now threatens dissolution.

Germany now began to imitate other European powers in acquiring possessions beyond the sea. International rivalry, the desire to add to her material prosperity, and the great tide of emigration to other countries prompted her to claim her share of ownerless territory. Bismarck was at first opposed to colonial expansion, and the colonial policy advocated by him in 1884 was that "the Imperial flag would not precede colonization but follow it". Togoland and Cameroons in West Africa were acquired in 1884. The first laws relating to the administration of colonies were passed in 1886.

The Triple
Alliance.

German
Coloniza-
tion.

**Bismarck's
Famous
Speeches.**

One of Bismarck's most powerful speeches in the Reichstag was in the debate over the *Septennat* in 1885, a bill asking for an appropriation to maintain for seven years an additional force of forty-five thousand men on the western border, and to strengthen the fortresses. The whole world looked on and listened to the debate, because the passing of the bill seemed to imply war. Perhaps the greatest speech of Bismarck's life was that on the Landsturm Law on February 6, 1888. It "thrilled the heart of Europe," and was a powerful plea for an additional tax to add half a million of men to the regular army. This speech is interesting as being virtually a summary of Bismarck's political career.

**Emperor
William's
Ninetieth
Birthday.**

On March 22, 1887, Emperor William's ninetieth birthday was celebrated with the greatest enthusiasm. The German princes offered congratulations in person or through representatives, and all the powers of Europe, even France, sent birthday greetings. No sovereign was ever more highly honored and Berlin had never witnessed such an ovation. His career was great and glorious and he went down to his grave "full of honors," and feeling that the mission of his life had been fulfilled,—the unifying of the German nation.

**Emperor
Frederic
III.**

The death of Emperor William I., March 9, 1888, plunged the nation into deepest mourning, and the shadow was heavier because of the double sorrow that had darkened the national life. An incurable disease had fastened itself upon Crown Prince Frederic before the Emperor's death, and the people knew that he upon whom they had centred their hopes and their affections would soon be taken from them. Frederic III. assumed the imperial office on March 10, 1888, but there was no coronation. As Crown Prince he had

been idolized by the people and had been saluted by North and South alike as "Unser Fritz". His magnetic manner, his unselfish devotion to his people, his tender sympathy for old and young, his spotless purity of soul, and his aspirations after everything great and noble, together with his military triumphs as soldier-prince, made him an ideal hero. His sublime resignation under the awful tragedy of his life and his calm and patient endurance of suffering endeared him still more to the people. When the news of his father's death reached San Remo, where Frederic had been taken for the winter, he started at once upon the homeward journey to assume his new duties. His devoted wife was his support and shared all his sorrows and responsibilities. "Empress Frederic," as she was called in Berlin, was the oldest daughter of Queen Victoria and a woman of rare intellect and strength of character. Frederic's brief reign of ninety-nine days is not remembered for public acts. The time was too short for the accomplishment of his carefully elaborated plans for promoting the public weal, but his proclamation to the people and the rescript addressed to the Imperial Chancellor show what his work as Germany's sovereign might have been. Bismarck said: "Had he lived longer as German Emperor, he would have astonished the world with his energy and personal action in the government". He was an enthusiastic lover of literature and art, and though some critics say that he was too much of an idealist to have made a successful ruler, there is no doubt that under his sway Germany would have reached her golden age of culture.

It is remarkable that those who figured so largely in the formation of the Empire were men of advanced years. Emperor William was seventy-four years of

age when the imperial crown was placed upon his brow. Bismarck held the reins of power from his fifty-ninth till his seventy-ninth year, while Von Moltke had seen seventy summers when he was made Field Marshal of the German Empire. It was a day when age and experience were revered by the younger generation.

Makers of
the Empire.

Various opinions are held by historians and biographers as to who should be called the maker of the German Empire of to-day. Dr. John Lord calls Bismarck the "builder of the German Empire," and the Chancellor's biographers are united in ascribing honor to him as the one who accomplished the union. One authority says: "Without Bismarck there would have been no united Germany and no Emperor". On the other hand, Professor von Treitschke of the University of Berlin calls William I. "the man who united Germany," and Sidney Whitman says: "Although without a Bismarck the Germany of to-day might have been, without the late Emperor (William I.) it could not have been." Admirers of Frederic III., including his own son, the present Emperor, claim for him the honor of unifying Germany. Still others tell us that German unity could not have been accomplished without the Franco-Prussian War, and that the war could not have been victorious without Von Moltke and Roon. Probably the truth of the matter is that there was no leading rôle in the drama, but the plaudits of the multitude should be distributed, giving a fair share of praise to William I. the wise ruler, Bismarck the sagacious statesman, Von Moltke "the greatest general and strategist since Napoleon," and to Frederic, who won the crowning victory at Sedan and whose liberal policy in affairs of state Bismarck is supposed to have followed. Germany may point

with pride to all of them. They were men of intellect and of indomitable will, and God-fearing men whose faith in the God of nations helped them to lay deep and broad the foundations of the Empire.

CHAPTER LXXIII.

REIGN OF WILLIAM II.

Accession
of Emperor
William II.

THE German people had never reposed confidence in Crown Prince William and he was not a favorite with them. His accession to the throne on June 15, 1888, at the age of twenty-nine, was not hailed with joyous acclamation. His youth, impetuosity, and arrogant egotism, led the people to view him with many misgivings. He began his reign with a pompous display of military power and his proclamation was addressed to the army and not to the people. He believes most implicitly in his "divine right" to rule, and his belief in the old idea of the "Lord's anointed" naturally has led to ostentatious display and a revival of the pageantry of past ages. The opening of the first Imperial Diet of his reign was a scene of almost unparalleled splendor. Frederic the Great is his ideal monarch, and in his martial spirit, his versatility, and his love of arbitrary power, he resembles his illustrious ancestor. His military training was unusually thorough, and it is said that his knowledge of military history is marvellous. He sat at the feet of Moltke and always had the highest veneration for the grand old general. In affairs of state he received valuable schooling from his grandfather and from Bismarck. Seldom does a prospective ruler have such teachers to fit him for his career.

The first year of his reign was largely spent in a round of visits to European courts. The sovereigns of

Russia, Denmark, Austria, and Italy were visited, and while in Rome he had an interview with Pope Leo at the Vatican.

The first important public event of the reign of William II. was the ceremony marking the end of the Hanseatic League. Lübeck had yielded her rights twenty-two years before, and Hamburg and Bremen were at last forced to realize that the welfare of the many demanded a sacrifice of individual ambition. They entered the Customs Union on October 18, 1888, thereby surrendering their historical rights as free ports. A great celebration attended the event, and Emperor William himself honored the ceremony with his presence. The Hanseatic League, which for centuries had carried its head so proudly, became a thing of the past. The only trace of the historical prestige of the three free cities is in their being ranked with the hereditary princes in the *Bundesrath*.

In his Crown Prince days, William II. had professed warmest friendship for Bismarck, and in a message to him, on New Year's Day, 1889, he had expressed the hope that they might long be permitted to work together for the welfare and greatness of the Fatherland. But the arbitrary Chancellor who had guided state affairs for so many years, at his own will, could not be dominated by the young Emperor, who possessed most decidedly a will of his own and who felt competent to be his own Chancellor. Disagreement arose upon the method of dealing with socialism. Bismarck wished to have rigorous anti-socialist laws passed, while the Emperor favored a milder policy. Ministerial responsibility was also a bone of contention. By the Prussian constitution, the Ministers were made responsible to the Crown and not to the Chancellor, as Bismarck desired. Though it was known that dif-

End of the
Hanseatic
League.

Rupture
with
Bismarck.

ferences existed between the Emperor and the Chancellor, the world was electrified when the news was divulged that Bismarck had been asked to resign his three offices. The resignation was asked for on March 17, 1890, but as befitted a statesman in Bismarck's high position, he prepared a suitable memorial which reached the Emperor on March 20. An imperial message was sent to the Chancellor, formally accepting his resignation and eulogizing his work for Germany. General von Caprivi was appointed Chancellor. Bismarck's retirement from office did not mean political death for him. Delegations of reporters thronged his home at Friedrichsruh; his criticisms of the administration were given to the press, and he continued to influence public opinion.

Reconciliation.

Several efforts were made to effect a reconciliation, with no response on Bismarck's part. In January, 1894, Bismarck had a severe illness, and the Emperor sent his wishes for a safe recovery, accompanying his message with a bottle of rare old Hock. The wishes and the wine warmed the Chancellor's heart and he accepted graciously the Emperor's kindness. He was then invited to visit the Emperor, and his return to Berlin was a genuine triumph, the court and the people paying him homage. He did not, however, enter public life again, but lived in retirement at Friedrichsruh till his death, in 1898.

Many far-reaching events have occurred since 1890 which command the attention of the student of Germany's history.

Anglo-German Agreement.

The boundaries of the "spheres of influence" in Africa were sharply defined by the Anglo-German Convention, which met at Berlin, on July 1, 1890. An agreement was signed by which Germany withdrew some of her claims, and, in return for her territorial

concessions, England ceded to her the Island of Helgoland, a rocky fortress in the North Sea, which would be serviceable as an outpost in military operations, protecting the northern coast of Germany.

Germany's model insurance system is the admiration of the world. No country has ever devised a plan for the care of the sick and the disabled that is more perfectly organized or more practical in its workings. The Old Age and Infirmary Assurance Bill was passed in 1889 and went into effect January 1, 1891. This was the third of the bills which form the insurance system foreshadowed in the address of William I. to the Reichstag in 1881. The Act of Insurance against sickness was passed in 1883. Wage-earners pay one and a half to two per cent. of their wages as a premium and are guaranteed medical care and half wages during illness. Employers pay one-third, the State pays another third, and the workingman's payments constitute the other third. Compulsory Insurance against Accident was legalized in 1884. In case of complete disablement by accident, the wage-earner draws two-thirds of his wages, and in case of death by accident, provision is made for his family. Wage-earners receiving less than five hundred dollars a year in wages are required to provide for their old age. The Government acts as the insurance company, and the premiums are fixed in proportion to the salary, one-half of the premium being paid by the employer except in special contracts. At seventy years of age, or when so disabled that a living cannot be earned, the insured draws four per cent., indefinitely, on the amount to his credit on the books. This insurance system has done more to counteract the discontent of socialism than all the anti-socialist laws ever passed by Germany.

William II. has always endorsed heartily all public

The Kaiser
Wilhelm
Canal.

improvements and has favored the great canal system, the construction of waterways to connect the large rivers, the Rhine, the Weser, and the Elbe. An immense fleet of warships, representing the navy of nearly every nation, assembled in the North Sea to witness the opening of the North Sea and Baltic Canal on June 21, 1895. It is called the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal and connects the ports of Kiel and Wilhelmshaven. The Emperor on his yacht, the *Hohenzollern*, led the procession through the canal to Kiel, where he gave a grand banquet on shipboard.

The
Germans
in China.

The desire for expansion has moulded Germany's policy in reference to the far East, and the seizure of Kiao-chau marked the beginning of her Pacific possessions. In 1897, two German Catholic missionaries were murdered by the Chinese, and as the Chinese Government did not respond immediately to the Emperor's demand for reparation, a naval force was sent in January, 1898, to seize the port of Kiao-chau in Shantung, one of the richest provinces in China. Prince Henry led the squadron, and at its embarkation there was an imposing ceremony with a dramatic address by the Emperor, counselling Prince Henry to use the "mailed fist". After the seizure of the port, the Chinese granted to Germany a ninety-nine years' lease of the Bay of Kiao-chau with a strip of adjoining territory. A dock and a coaling-station were speedily constructed, and the common opinion is that the German Government, feeling the need of a coaling-station in Eastern waters, and wishing to establish a "sphere of influence," made the murder of the missionaries a pretext for seizing Kiao-chau. Further complications with China arose in 1900, when the Boxer movement was at its height. The German Minister, Baron von Ketteler, was murdered by native troops in the streets of Peking.

A military expedition of twenty-three thousand men was sent to China, and Count Waldersee was put in command of the allied forces at Pekin. Before the German troops departed, the Emperor delivered one of his most impassioned speeches, urging his soldiers to give no quarter, but to make the name of German a terror in China, as that of Attila had been to men of old. Prince Chun, brother of the Chinese Emperor, was sent to Berlin in September, 1901, to convey a letter expressing Emperor Kwang Su's deepest regret for the assassination of Baron von Ketteler. An imperial edict had announced that a monument would be erected on the site of the murder, with an inscription in Latin, German, and Chinese, expressing the Chinese Emperor's regret for the deed.

Germany's position in the Far East was strengthened in 1899 by acquiring from Spain the remnant of her colonies in the Pacific, the Carolines, the Ladrões, and the Pelew Islands. During the same year, the Anglo-German Convention divided the Samoan Islands among the United States, Great Britain, and Germany, giving to Germany the largest portion. Colonial
Expansion.

During the Fall of 1902, Germany's attention was absorbed by the Venezuelan imbroglio. German citizens in Venezuela, and those who have investments there, have suffered loss of property in the civil wars that have distracted that South American republic in the past three years. Germany has claims against Venezuela for these losses, for sums due to German merchants, and for unpaid interest on the loan of 1896. Great Britain, which also had unsettled claims, joined Germany in coercive measures, and arranged a joint blockade in the harbor of La Guayra. On December 9, 1902, they seized four Venezuelan vessels and sunk three of them. The Powers called on President Roose- Relations
with Other
Powers.

vult to arbitrate in the matter, but by his advice the dispute was referred to The Hague Tribunal, which was established for the arbitration of just such troubles. The blockade was raised on February 15, 1903.

Pan-Germanic ideas have been freely discussed by the European press. Some writers think that, under cover of protecting her subjects in South America, Germany is planning to carve a state out of Brazilian territory, but she firmly disavows any such intention. Her dream, however, is to be "dictator of the world's civilization," and her ambition is larger than her territory. Some of her shrewdest and most far-sighted statesmen predict that she will in time absorb Denmark, Holland, and Belgium.

Germany's
Progress.

While socialism is a growing evil and menaces Germany's peace, other causes of discontent are being removed. Germany has recognized the fact that if she is to be in the vanguard of civilization, she must emancipate her women. Under the leadership of such able women as Helene Lange, Anita Augspurg, and Lily Braun, the "feminist movement" has made signal progress. Women have been admitted as hearers in the great universities and woman's sphere has been widened so that she is no longer a mere "Hausfrau".

Germany believes in and provides for a universal education. She is a progressive nation and her progress means not the aggrandizement of the few but the elevation of the entire nation. She emphasizes human brotherhood and, more than any other monarchy of to-day, believes in equality. Her industries and commerce have developed rapidly and steadily. Every nation recognizes her military supremacy, and the Naval Bill of 1900 will give her second rank among the navies of the world. In natural resources and financial power she is inferior to the United States and Great Britain,

and her geographical position is a disadvantage, but by that wonderful persistence and perseverance which is so characteristic of her people, she has overcome all obstacles and ranks to-day among the great world-powers.

Germany is a progressive nation and has a progressive Emperor. The world looked on askance when young William II. took the reins of power; but no longer do people feel that European peace is imperilled. Although the army has always been the chief object of the Emperor's solicitude, he is not belligerent; his desire is only to make Germany a formidable foe. He has introduced many army reforms, adopting smokeless powder and all improved weapons. The navy, too, has gained much in strength and efficiency during his reign. He has encouraged science and art, has built churches, and sought by every means to develop and strengthen the nation. We may criticise his vanity and egotism, but we cannot deny the fact that he is a gifted man and is using his gifts for the good of Germany. Some excuse is to be made for the constant glorification of himself and the emphasis of his "divine right," if we consider that his aim is to strengthen the national feeling and make his people realize that the Empire is ever superior to the State. He feels that he is the man who is needed to lead Germany to great and glorious things. The fondest hopes of the founders of the German Empire are being realized, and the work so grandly begun by William I., Bismarck, Moltke, and Frederic III. is being carried forward by the present Emperor. Under his régime, the nation has had peace and prosperity, growth and development, and the German Empire of to-day commands the respect and admiration of all enlightened nations

Summary
of Reign of
William II.

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IMPORTANT EVENTS (1880-1903).

- 1880 March 11.—Unveiling of statue of Queen Louise in Berlin.
 October 15.—Completion of the Cologne Cathedral celebrated with great ceremony.
- 1883 September 28.—Dedication of the National Monument on the "Niederwald".
 November 10.—Festival at Wittenberg in honor of the birth of Martin Luther.
- 1886 January 3.—Silver Jubilee of Emperor William's accession to the throne of Prussia.
 August 17.—Centenary celebration of the death of Frederic the Great.
- 1890 Moltke Fête, in honor of his ninetieth birthday.
- 1891 May 1.—International Art Exhibition at Berlin.
- 1894 Oct. 26.—Chancellor Caprivi retired.
- 1895 April 1.—Celebration of Bismarck's eightieth birthday.
- 1896 January 17.—Prof. Roentgen of Würzburg announces the discovery of the X-ray.
 May 1. Berlin Industrial Exposition with colonial exhibit.
 September 19.—International Woman's Congress at Berlin.
- 1897 March 22.—Magnificent bronze statue of Emperor William I. unveiled in Berlin.
- 1899 August 25.—Celebration throughout Germany of the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of Goethe's birth.
- 1900 January 1.—New Civil Code went into effect.
 June 16.—Colossal bronze statue of Bismarck unveiled in Berlin.
 October 17.—Resignation of Chancellor Hohenlohe accepted and Count von Bülow appointed his successor.

- 1901 January 17 and 18.—Bicentenary celebration of the Prussian Kingdom.
 March 23.—Attempt by an epileptic youth to assassinate the Emperor.
- 1902 February 25.—Prince Henry of Prussia comes to the United States to represent Emperor William II. at the launching of the *Meteor*.
 November 7.—Andrew White is succeeded by Charlemagne Tower as German Ambassador.
- 1903 May 2.—Emperor William confers with Pope Leo at the Vatican.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

The German Empire as now constituted consists of

FOUR KINGDOMS: Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg.

SIX GRAND DUCHIES: Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt, Saxe-Weimar, Oldenburg, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Mecklenburg-Schwerin.

FIVE DUCHIES: Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Brunswick, Anhalt.

SEVEN PRINCIPALITIES: Schwartzburg-Sondershausen, Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt, Waldeck, Reuss (Older Line), Reuss (Younger Line), Lippe, Schaumburg-Lippe.

THREE FREE TOWNS: Hamburg, Lübeck, Bremen.

ONE IMPERIAL PROVINCE: Alsace-Lorraine.

KINGS AND EMPERORS OF GERMANY.

HEREDITARY MONARCHY.

CARLOVINGIAN RACE.—Kings of France and Germany.

Contemporaries.	CHARLES I., Charlemagne, 772	King of France and Germany. Crowned Emperor of Germany and Italy. Beginning of connection between Germany and Italy. Married Ermengarde, daughter of Didier, King of Lombardy. Sent her back in a year. Had nine wives altogether.
	LOUIS I., Le Débonnaire, 814	Son. Married Judith, daughter of Guelph, Duke of Bavaria.
	LOTHAIRE I., 840	Son. King of Italy as well as titular Emperor of Germany. Died in a monastery at Trèves (Trier), 855. (Kingdom of Lorraine.) Treaty of Verdun, 843.
	{ LOUIS II., the German, 843	Son of Louis le Débonnaire. Took the north of Germany from his brother Lothaire. Died, 876, at Frankfurt.
	{ LOUIS II. (Em- peror: an empty title), 855	Son of Lothaire I. Only shared his father's kingdom with two brothers.
	{ CHARLES II., the Bald (le Chauve), 875	Son of Louis le Débonnaire and Judith. Poisoned in a hut on Mont Cenis, 877.
	LOUIS III., the Stam- merer (le Bègue), 877	Son of Charles the Bald. Died 879.
	CHARLES III., the Fat (le Gros), 881	Crowned King of Italy. Deposed.
	ARNULF or ARNOUL, nephew, 887	Crowned Emperor at Rome, 896. Germans take Rome.
	{ LOUIS the Blind (l'Aveugle) (nom- inal reign), 899	Grandson of Louis II. Crowned by Pope Benedict IV., 901. Captured and blinded by Béranger, King of Italy.
	{ LOUIS IV., l'Enfant (the Child), 899	Son of Arnulf. Died 911. Last of the Car- lovingian Race in Germany.

SEPARATION OF GERMANY FROM FRANCE.

ELECTIVE MONARCHY.

SAXON DYNASTY.—Kings of Germany and Italy (not France).

- (OTTO, Duke of Sax- Married Luitgarde, daughter of Arnulf (Emp.).
ony), 911 He refused the title of King on account
of old age.
- CONRAD I., Duke of Married Placidia, daughter of Louis IV.
Franconia (Electo- Dukes and Counts independent of the
rate), 911 Emperor. Named his successor.
- HEINRICH I., Son of Otto, Duke of Saxony. Crowned king.
the Fowler, 918 Is called the "City builder". Conquered
Huns, Vandals, Danes, and Bohemians.
- OTTO I., the Great, 936 Beginning of "Holy Roman Empire". Son
of Heinrich the Fowler. Crowned by Pope
John XII., 962. I. Married Eadgath, sis-
ter of Athelstane, King of England, and
daughter of Edmund. II. Married Ade-
laide, widow of Lothaire, King of Lom-
bardy, 951. Subdued Italy.
- OTTO II., Son. Married Theophania, a Greek princess.
the Bloody, 973 Said to have murdered his chief nobility at
a feast. Wounded by a poisoned arrow.
- OTTO III., the Red, 983 Son. Poisoned.
- HEINRICH II., Duke of Cousin of Otto III., great-grandson of Hein-
Bavaria, 1002 rich the Fowler. Called the Lamé and the
Saint.

FRANCONIAN DYNASTY.—Descendants of the House of Saxony.

- CONRAD II., Great-great-grandson of Otto I.
the Salique, 1024
- HEINRICH III., Son.
the Black, 1039
- HEINRICH IV., 1056 Son. His mother, Empress Agnes, regent.
Married Bertha von Susa. Sent for by the
Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) to Ca-
nossa. Deposed and exiled by his bad sons,
Rodolf, Hermann, Conrad, and Heinrich.
- HEINRICH V., 1106 Son. Married Matilda (MAUD), daughter of
Henry I. of England. Heinrich disputed
about investitures. Disappeared from his
palace. No children.
- LOTHAIRE II., D. of Called the Saxon.
Saxony, 1125

HOUSE OF HOHENSTAUFEN OR SWABIA

(Ghibelline, Waiblingen).

- CONRAD III., Duke of Swabia, 1138 Son of Frederic von Büren and Agnes, daughter of Heinrich IV. Founder of the Hohenstaufen or Ghibelline Dynasty. Wars of Guelphs and Ghibellines. Weinsberg. Second Crusade—Conrad defeated; returned home, 1149.
- FREDERIC I., Barbarossa, Duke of Swabia, 1152 Nephew of Conrad III. Married Beatrice of Burgundy. Wars in Italy; Milan destroyed. Ruined Heinrich the Lion. Third Crusade against Saladin. Drowned in Asia Minor.
- HEINRICH VI. of Swabia, 1190 Son. Married Constance the Nun. Took part in third Crusade. Kept King Richard (Cœur de Lion) prisoner. Fourth Crusade. Teutonic knights established.
- PHILIP of Swabia, brother, 1198 Assassinated by Otto von Wittelsbach of Bavaria.
- OTTO IV., the Proud (of Brunswick), 1208 Son of Heinrich the Lion, the Guelphic Duke of Bavaria, and Matilda, daughter of Henry II. of England. Elected by Guelphs, etc. Excommunicated and deposed, 1215. Married daughter of the murdered Philip of Swabia. Died 1218.
- FREDERIC II. of Sicily and Swabia, 1215 Son of Heinrich VI. and Constance the Nun. Friend of the Saracens. Sixth Crusade—crowned himself King of Jerusalem. Married Yolande of Jerusalem, daughter of Jean de Brienne. Deposed.
- WILLIAM, Earl of Holland, 1247 Nominated by the Pope; not crowned till 1248. Married Elizabeth of Brunswick. Defeated Conrad IV., 1251. Killed in Friesland, 1256.
- CONRAD IV. of Sicily and Swabia, 1250 Son of Frederic II. Despoiled of his possessions by the Pope. Died 1254. His half-brother, Manfred, seized his estates in Italy. His son, Conradino, murdered by Charles of Anjou, 1268.
- Interregnum, 1256 to 1273
- RICHARD, Earl of Cornwall, 1257 } Only nominated.
- ALPHONSO of Castile, 1257 }

HOUSES OF HAPSBURG, LUXEMBURG,¹ BAVARIA.

EMPERORS.

- | | |
|--|---|
| RODOLF I., Count of
Hapsburg, 1273 | Founder of the reigning dynasty of Austria.
Defeated Ottocar, King of Bohemia, 1278.
Died 1219. |
| Interregnum, 1291 | |
| ADOLPHUS, Count of
Nassau, 1292 | Defeated and slain by Albrecht of Austria. |
| ALBRECHT I., Duke of
Austria, 1298 | Son of Rodolf of Hapsburg. Swiss struggle
for freedom. Assassinated 1308. |
| HEINRICH VII. of Lux-
emburg, 1308 | Descendant of Frederic Barbarossa of the
Swabian House of Hohenstaufen. De-
posed. |
| Interregnum, 1313 | |
| LUDWIG IV. of Ba-
varia, 1314 | Ludwig IV. of Wittelsbach, House of Ba-
varia. Rival to Frederic III., son of Al-
brecht I. of Austria, grandson of Rodolf. |
| FREDERIC III. of
Austria, 1314 | War with Swiss. Morgarten. Rival
Emperors became friends. |
| LUDWIG IV.,
alone, 1330 | After Frederic III.'s death. |
| CHARLES IV. of Lux-
emburg, 1347 | Grandson of Heinrich VII. of Luxemburg.
His father, Blind Johann. His mother was
descended from Ottocar, King of Bohemia.
Edict called "Golden Bull". Tyrol ac-
quired. |
| WENCESLAS, King of
Bohemia, 1378 | The Drunkard. Son of Charles IV. Sem-
pach. Wild confusion. |
| FREDERIC III. of Bruns-
wick, 1400 | A Guelph. Assassinated immediately after
election. |
| RUPERT, Count Pala-
tine of the Rhine, 1400 | Of Hapsburg and Wittelsbach, by the mar-
riage of Matilda, daughter of Rodolf of
Hapsburg, with Louis, Duke of Bavaria. |
| SIGISMUND, King of
Hungary, 1410 | Brother of Wenceslas the Drunkard; son of
Charles IV. Became King of Bohemia
in 1419. Driven from the throne, 1438,
by Albrecht II. |

¹ Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, held by Holland, ceded to Charles VI., Emperor of Germany, at the Peace of Utrecht, 1713. Annexed to Hol-
land, 1815. A portion given to the new kingdom of Belgium, 1830.
Neutral province in present day under kingdom of Holland.

(Jossus of Moravia, Chosen by one party of electors. Died next year.
nominated)

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA. HAPSBURG.

- ALBRECHT II., 1438 "The Great." Duke of Austria, son-in-law of Sigismund, King of Hungary and Bohemia, and great-great-grandson of Albrecht I.
- Interregnum, 1439
- FREDERIC IV. (or III.), 1440 "The Pacific" (or "the Sleepy").
- MAXIMILIAN I., 1493 Son of Frederic IV. (or III.). Married Mary of Burgundy and Bianca Sforza. Wars with Low Countries, Swiss, Venice, French, and Turks (Battle of Spurs). Reformation begun. Diet of Worms. On Maximilian's death, both Francis I. of France and Charles I. of Spain became competitors for the throne.
- CHARLES V. (I. of Spain), 1519 Son of Philip, Archduke of Austria, and Juana of Castile. Grandson of Maximilian I. Reformation. Enormous kingdom. Resigned.
- FERDINAND I., son of Philip of Austria, 1556 Brother of Charles V. Succeeded on his brother's resignation. King of Hungary and Bohemia.
- MAXIMILIAN II., 1564 Son of Ferdinand I. Married Maria, daughter of Charles V. Established religious toleration.
- RODOLF II., 1576 Son of Maximilian II. Surrendered Austria, Hungary, and Moravia to his brother Matthias in 1608; and Bohemia, Silesia, and Lusatia in 1612.
- MATTHIAS, 1612 Son of Maximilian II. Forced his brother Rodolf to resign his crown. Adopted his cousin Ferdinand of Hungary, son of Archduke Charles and grandson of Ferdinand I., as his heir, and gave him Bohemia. Thirty Years' War began 1618.
- FERDINAND II., 1619 King of Hungary and Bohemia. Son of Archduke Charles and grandson of Ferdinand I. Carried on Thirty Years' War against the Protestants.

- FERDINAND III., 1637 Son of Ferdinand II. Peace of Westphalia.
- LEOPOLD I., 1658 Son of Ferdinand III. War with Turks; they are defeated at St. Gothard, 1664. Lost Alsace to France, 1680-1. Peace of Ryswick. Carlowitz. Began the War of Spanish Succession, 1701. Empire saved at Blenheim, 1704.
- JOSEPH I., 1705 Son of Leopold I., King of Hungary. War with France.
- CHARLES VI., 1711 Son of Leopold I. and brother of Joseph I. Last of the Hapsburgs. Peace of Utrecht. Increased his territories. Pragmatic Sanction. (The Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, etc.)
- MARIA THERESA 1740 Daughter of Charles VI. Married Francis, Duke of Lorraine, 1736. He exchanged Lorraine for Tuscany, 1737. Disputed succession with Charles VII. Seven Years' War between Maria Theresa and Frederic II. the Great of Prussia. Combined with Russia for partition of Poland, 1772. England supported Maria Theresa. Died 1780.
- CHARLES VII. 1742 Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria, a descendant of Rodolf of Hapsburg. Elected Emperor against Maria Theresa. France supported Charles VII. Died 1745.
- } Rivals.

HOUSE OF LORRAINE.

- FRANCIS I., of Lorraine, 1745 Husband of Maria Theresa. Descended from Gerard, Duke of Lorraine, the first hereditary Duke of Lotharingia, 1048. War with the Turks, 1738. Crowned 1745.
- JOSEPH II., the Reformer, 1765 Son of Francis I. and Maria Theresa. Travelled in France as Count Falkenstein, 1777. His sister was Marie Antoinette of France. Jesuits suppressed. Made great changes and reforms; visited in consequence by Pope Pius VI.
- LEOPOLD II., 1790 Son of Francis I. Grand Duke of Tuscany. Succeeded his brother Joseph II. Signed Convention of Pilnitz against French Republic, 1791.

- | | |
|---|--|
| { FRANCIS II., of Ger-
many, 1792
FRANCIS I., of Aus-
tria.
Resigned Germany,
1806 | Son of Leopold II. Joined Prussia against Napoleon Buonaparte, 1794. Peace of Campo Formio. League with England. Defeated at Marengo and Hohenlinden. Peace of Lunéville. Resigned German crown, 1806. Became Francis I. of Austria. War with France, 1809. Peace of Vienna. His daughter Maria Luisa married Napoleon, 1810. Supported Napoleon in Russian Campaign, 1812. Joined Russia and Prussia against him, 1813. |
|---|--|
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- | | |
|---|---|
| CONFEDERATION OF THE
RHINE, 1806 | Formed by Napoleon Buonaparte when he abolished the Holy Roman Empire, and the Emperor of Germany became Emperor of Austria. It consisted of France, Bavaria, Würtemberg, Saxony, and Westphalia; seven grand duchies, six duchies, and twenty principalities. Diet to be held at Frankfort. This Confederation ended in 1814 with the career of Napoleon. |
| GERMANIC CONFEDER-
ATION, with Austria
at the head, 1815 | Superseded the Confederation of the Rhine, 1815. First Diet at Frankfort, November, 1816. Last Diet, August, 1866. It comprised Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, Würtemberg (the last four kingdoms had been formed by Napoleon), grand duchies of Baden and Hesse, Denmark, the Netherlands, Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Coburg, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Altenburg, Brunswick, Nassau, Mecklenburg, Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Oldenburg, three Anhalts and two Schwartzburgs, two Hehenzollerns, Lichtenstein, two Reusses, Schaumburg-Lippe, Lippe and Waldeck, Free Cities, Lübeck, Frankfort, Bremen, and Hamburg. |
| NORTH GERMAN CON-
FEDERATION, with
Prussia at the head,
1866 | Prussia in alliance with the above States (with the exception of Austria, Bavaria, Hanover, Würtemberg, Baden, Denmark, Netherlands, Nassau, Hohenzollern, Lichtenstein). |
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HOUSE OF HOHENZOLLERN OF PRUSSIA.

(EMPERORS OF GERMANY.)

- WILLIAM I., 1871 Son of Frederic William III., King of Prussia; succeeded his brother Frederic William IV., 1861. War with Austria. Sadowa. Chief command of German army against France. Received surrender of Napoleon III., 1870, and was crowned at Versailles, 1871, as Emperor of Germany (Bismarck Chancellor). Died 1888.
- FREDERIC I., 1888 Married Victoria, Princess Royal of Great Britain, 1858. Proclaimed Emperor, 1888. Was never crowned. Reigned thirteen weeks. Died of cancer, June, 1888.
- WILLIAM II., 1888 Married Augusta Victoria, Princess of Schleswig-Holstein. Came to the throne, June, 1888.

 PRUSSIA CONSISTS OF—

- Eastern Prussia.
 Western Prussia.
 Brandenburg, ancient Electorate.
 Silesia, conquered by Frederic the Great, 1763.
 Pomerania.
 Posen, part of the ancient Kingdom of Poland.
 Prussian Saxony, ceded 1815, at Congress of Vienna.
 Schleswig-Holstein, ceded by Denmark 1866.
 Hanover, once a Kingdom, ceded 1866, and became Prussian Province.
 Westphalia, part of Kingdom formed by Napoleon.
 Hesse-Nassau, is formed by Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Frankfort and Homburg, ceded to Prussia in 1866.
 Rhenish Prussia, or three Archbishoprics-Electorates.
 Hohenzollern, royal Principality.
-

PRUSSIA. (BRANDENBURG.)—KINGDOM.

MARGRAVES AND ELECTORS OF BRANDENBURG.

- 1134 Albert, the Bear, 1st Elector of Brannybor or Brandenburg.
- 1170 Otto I.
- 1184 Otto II.
- 1206 Albert II.
- 1221 Johann I. and Otto III.
- 1266 Johann II.
- 1282 Otto IV.
- 1309 Waldemar.
- 1319 Heinrich I.
- 1320 Interregnum.
- 1323 Ludwig I., of Bavaria.
- 1352 Ludwig II., the Roman.
- 1365 Otto V., the Sluggard.
- 1373 Wenceslas of Luxemburg, the Drunkard. (Wenzel.) (Emp.)
- 1378 Sigismund, brother of Wenceslas: Emperor.
- 1388 Jossus the Bearded: Rival Emperor.

ELECTORS. (HOUSE OF HOHENZOLLERN.)

- 1415 Frederic I., of Nüremberg, bought the Electorate from Sigismund.
 - 1440 Frederic II., Ironside.
 - 1470 Albert III., Achilles.
 - 1476 Johann III., Cicero.
 - 1499 Joachim I., Nestor.
 - 1535 Joachim II., Hector.
 - 1571 Johann George.
- DUKEDOM OF PRUSSIA.

In 1525 Albert of Brandenburg, last Grand Master of the Teutonic Knights, became Lutheran, and was made Duke of Prussia. He left two grand-daughters and heiresses.
- 1598 Joachim Frederic, married younger grand-daughter of Duke Albert.

ELECTORS AND DUKES (HOHENZOLLERN).

- 1608 John Sigismund becomes duke by his marriage with Anne, elder grand-daughter of Duke Albert.
- 1619 George William.
- 1640 Frederic William, the "Great Elector".
- 1688 Frederic III., crowned king as Frederic I. (as follows):

KINGS OF PRUSSIA.

- 1701 Frederic I.
- 1713 Frederic William I. Founded the Order of Black Eagle.
- 1740 Frederic II., the "Great". Married Elizabeth Christina of Brunswick Bevern. Made Prussia a military power.
- 1786 Frederic William II

- 1797 Frederic William III. Contended with Napoleon.
 1840 Frederic William IV.
 1861 William I. Married Princess Augusta of Saxe-Weimar.
 Crowned Emperor at Versailles.

EMPERORS OF GERMANY AND KINGS OF
PRUSSIA.

- 1871 William I. Died March, 1888.
 1888 Frederic (Fritz). Married Princess Royal of England. Died
 June, 1888.
 1888 William II. Married Princess Augusta Victoria of Holstein
 Augustenburg.

WÜRTEMBERG.—KINGDOM.

ORIGINALLY PART OF SWABIA. DUKES.

- 1494 Eberhard I.
 1496 Eberhard II.
 1498 Ulric. Deprived of his estates by the Emperor Charles V. Re-
 covered them 1534.
 1550 Christopher the Pacific.
 1568 Louis the Pious.
 1593 Frederic.
 1608 John Frederic. Joined the Protestants in Thirty Years' War.
 1628 Eberhard III.
 1674 William Louis.
 1677 Eberhard Louis. Served under William III. in Ireland and with
 the English armies on the Continent.
 1733 Charles Alexander.
 1737 Charles Eugene.
 1793 Louis Eugene. Joins the war against France.
 1795 Frederic I. Makes peace with France 1796.
 1797 Frederic II. Son. Married Princess Royal of England.
 Elector of Germany 1803. King 1805.

WÜRTEMBERG MADE A KINGDOM, 1805, BY
NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE.
KINGS.

- 1805 Frederic I. (2nd Duke). Ally of Napoleon in Russia. One
 of the allies against him in 1813.
 1816 William I. Son. Abolished serfdom.
 1864 Charles I. Son. Married Princess Olga of Russia.

SAXONY.—KINGDOM.

- 785 Witekind, said to be descended from Wodin (Odin).
 880 Saxony was made a Duchy.
 1180 Saxony was made an Electorate.
 1806 Saxony was made a Kingdom.

ELECTORS.

- 1423 Frederic I. (of the House of Misnia).
 1428 Frederic II.

ERNESTINE LINE.

- 1464 Ernest, son of Frederic II.
 1486 Frederic III.
 1525 John.

- 1532 John Frederic. Deprived by the Emperor Charles V., who gave his estates to
 1548 Maurice (Albertine Line).
 1553 Augustus.
 1586 Christian I.
 1591 Christian II.
 1611 John George I.
 1656 John George II.
 1680 John George III.
 1691 John George IV.
 1694 Frederic Augustus I., King of Poland, 1697.
 1733 Frederic Augustus II., King of Poland.
 1763 Frederic Augustus III., King of Saxony, 1806.

ALBERTINE LINE.

- 1464 Albert, son of Frederic II.
 1500 George.
 1539 Henry.
 1541 Maurice.

KINGS.

- 1806 Frederic Augustus I.
 1827 Anthony Clement.
 1836 Frederic Augustus II
 1854 John, brother.
 1873 Albert, son.
-

BAVARIA.—KINGDOM.

- 630 and 660 Conquered from the Kelts by the Franks.
 788 Tasillon deposed by Charlemagne, who established Margraves.

DUKES.

- 1071 Guelph I.
 1101 Guelph II. Married Countess Matilda.
 1120 Heinrich the Black, brother.
 1126 Heinrich the Proud, son: deposed 1138.
 1154 Heinrich the Lion. Ancestor of the Brunswick family Quar-
 relled with Frederic Barbarossa.
 1180 Otto, Count of Wittelsbach.
 1183 Ludwig, son.
 1231 Otto II., the Illustrious, son.
 1253 Ludwig II., the Severe, son.
 1294 Ludwig III. (Emperor).
 1347 Stephan I.
 1375 Johann I., brother.
 1397 Ernest, brother.
 1438 Albrecht I., son.
 1460 Johann II., son.
 1465 Albrecht II., brother.
 1508 Wilhelm I., son. Opposed Reformation.
 1550 Albrecht III., son.
 1579 Wilhelm II., son: abdicated.
 1596 Maximilian the Great, son. First Elector.

DUKES AND ELECTORS.

- 1651 Ferdinand Maria.
 1679 Maximilian Emmanuel, son. Defeated at Blenheim.
 1726 Charles Albrecht, son. (Elected Emperor.)
 1745 Maximilian Joseph I., son. (End of younger line of Wittelsbach.)
 1778 Charles Theodore, Elector Palatine of the Rhine.
 1799 Maximilian Joseph II. Elector. Made King by Napoleon,
 1805.

KINGS.

- 1805 Maximilian Joseph I. Deserted Napoleon.
 1825 Ludwig (Louis) I. Abdicated.
 1848 Maximilian Joseph II., son.
 1864 Ludwig (Louis) II. Drowned.
 1886 Otto, brother. (Prince Luitpold, Uncle, Regent, and Heir.)
-

BADEN.—GRAND DUCHY.

Landulus, Count of Hapsburg.

Landulus, Count of Breisgau.

Berthold, Duke of Zähringen.

1074 Hermann I., Count of Zähringen and Hochberg.

MARGRAVES OF BADEN.

1130 Hermann I. Married Judith, heiress of Baden.

1160 Hermann II. Son.

1190 Hermann III. Son.

1243 Hermann IV. Son.

1250 Hermann V. Son.

1288 Rodolf I. Brother.

1291 Hermann VI. Son.

1333 Frederic II. Son.

1353 Hermann VII. Son.

1372 Rodolf II. Cousin.

1391 Rodolf III. Son.

1431 Bernhard I. Brother.

1453 James I. Son.

1475 Charles II. Son.

1527 Christopher I. Son.

MARGRAVES OF BADEN-
BADEN.1547 Bernhard IV. Son of
Christopher I.

1557 Philibert. Son.

1569 Philip. Son.

1588 Edward. Cousin.

1600 William. Son.

1677 Louis William. Grand-
son.

1707 Louis George. Son.

1750 Augustus William George.
Brother. Died 1771.
No issue.MARGRAVES OF BADEN-
DURLACH.1547 Ernst. Son of Christo-
pher I.

1553 Charles. Son.

1577 Ernest Frederic. Son.

1634 George Frederic. Brother.

1638 Frederic I. Son.

1659 Frederic II. Son.

1677 Frederic III. Son.

1709 Charles William. Son.

1738 Charles Frederic Grand-
son.

GRAND DUKES OF BADEN.

1806 Charles Frederic, Markgraf of Baden-Durlach, inherited the territories of the Margraves of Baden-Baden on the death of Augustus William George without issue in 1771. Elector of the Empire, 1803. Grand Duke by Congress of Vienna, 1806.

1811 Charles Louis Frederic. Grandson.

1818 Louis William Augustus. Uncle.

1830 Charles Leopold Frederic. Half-brother.

1852 Louis. Son. Incompetent. Frederic William Louis acted as
Regent.1856 Frederic William Louis. Brother. Married Princess Louise of
Prussia.

HESSE.—GRAND DUCHY.

The rulers were direct descendants of the Teuton tribe of Chatti. It formed part of the dominions of Charlemagne, and was joined to Thuringia till 1263, when Heinrich (son of a Duke of Brabant and Sophia, daughter of the Landgraf of Thuringia) became Landgraf of Hesse.

In 1509, Philip the Magnanimous, one of the successors of Heinrich, was an energetic supporter of the Reformation. At his death in 1567, Hesse was divided into Hesse-Cassel and Hesse-Darmstadt, under his sons, William and George, and their descendants took part in the wars of Germany during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

In 1803 Hesse-Cassel became an electorate.

In 1806 Hesse-Darmstadt was made a grand duchy.

(In 1807 Hesse-Cassel was incorporated with the kingdom of Westphalia; but in 1813 the electorate was re-established.)

ELECTORS OF HESSE-CASSEL.	GRAND DUKES OF HESSE-DARMSTADT.
1803 William I. 1821 William II. 1847 Frederic William. Died 1875.	1806 Louis I. Landgraf. Made grand duke by Napoleon Bonaparte. Joined Confederation of the Rhine.
Hesse-Cassel annexed to Prussia, 1866.	1815 Joined Germanic Confed- eration.
	1830 Louis II. Son.
	1848 Louis III. Son.
	1866 Joined North German Con- federation.
	1870 Louis IV. Nephew. Mar- ried Princess Alice of Great Britain.
	1871 Joined Prussia. Ernest Louis. Son.

MECKLENBURG.—GRAND DUCHIES.

Descendants of Genseric the Vandal, who died 477.

Mecklenburg given to Wallenstein, 1628; restored in 1630 to its own duke.

1701 Divided into two duchies.

1815 Two duchies made grand duchies.

1866 Joined the North German Confederation.

GRAND DUKES.

MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN.	MECKLENBURG-STRELITZ.
1815 Frederic Francis I.	1815 Charles.
1842 Frederic Francis II.	1816 George.
1883 Frederic Francis III.	1860 Frederic William.

OLDENBURG.—GRAND DUCHY.

- 1448 Annexed to Denmark. In 1773 Christian VII. of Denmark ceded it to Russia in exchange for Holstein Gottorp. Dukedom established shortly afterwards.
 1866 Joined the North German Confederation.

DUKES.

- 1773 Frederic Augustus.
 1785 Peter Frederic.
 1811 Napoleon Buonaparte seized the duchy, but it was restored in 1814.

GRAND DUKES.

- 1829 Augustus.
 1853 Peter.
 1896 Frederic August.
-

SAXE-WEIMAR-EISENACH.—GRAND DUCHY.

(Ernestine Branch.)

Grand duchy in 1815.

The grand dukes are descended from John Frederic, Elector of Saxony, 1554.

GRAND DUKES.

- 1815 Charles Augustus.
 1828 Charles Frederic.
 1853 Charles Alexander.
-

SAXE-MEININGEN.—DUCHY.

The dukes are descended from Ernest the Pious, Duke of Saxony, 1605.

DUKES.

- 1680 Bernard.
 1706 Bernard abdicated.
 1866 George.
-

SAXE-ALTENBURG.—DUCHY.

Dukes descended from Ernest the Pious of Saxony, 1605.

DUKES.

- Ernest, the first duke, died in 1715.
 George.
 1853 Ernest, son of George.
-

SAXE-COBURG AND GOTHA.—DUCHY.

- 1826 Ernest I., Duke of Saxe-Saalfeld-Coburg, married the heiress of Saxe-Gotha. His brother Leopold married Princess Charlotte of England, and became King of the Belgians, 1831. His nephew Ferdinand married Maria da Gloria, Queen of Portugal.
- 1844 Ernest II., son. Brother of Albert, Prince Consort of Great Britain.
- 1893 Ernest II. died 1893 without issue. His title and estates passed to his nephew, H.R.H. Duke of Edinburgh, son of Albert, Prince Consort.

BRUNSWICK.—DUCHY. ,

CONQUERED BY CHARLEMAGNE.

- 1047 Albert Azzo II. Descendant of Charlemagne. Married Cune-gonde, heiress of Guelph. Duke of Carinthia in Bavaria.
- 1097 Guelph, son. Duke of Bavaria. Married Judith of Flanders, a descendant of Alfred of England.
- 1125 Heinrich the Proud. Descended from Guelph and Judith. Acquired Brunswick and Saxony.

DUKES OF BRUNSWICK.

- 1139 Heinrich the Lion, son. Married Maud (Matilda), daughter of Henry II. of England. Founder of the Brunswick family. Quarrelled with Frederick Barbarossa. In 1180 the Duchy of Bavaria was given to Otto of Wittelsbach; the Duchy of Saxony to Bernard Ascanius, founder of the House of Anhalt: Brunswick and Luneburg restored to Heinrich the Lion at the intercession of Henry II. of England.
- 1195 Heinrich the Long and Wilhelm, sons.
- 1213 Otto I., son of Wilhelm. First to bear the title of Duke of Brunswick.
- 1252 Albrecht I., son.
- 1278 Albrecht II., son.
- 1318 Otto, Magnus I., and Ernest, sons.
- 1368 Magnus II., son of Magnus.

DUKES OF BRUNSWICK—WOLFENBÜTEL

FIRST BRANCH.

- 1409 Heinrich I., son of Magnus II.
- 1416 Wilhelm I., and Heinrich II.
- 1482 Frederic and Wilhelm II., } sons of Wilhelm I.
- 1495 Heinrich III. and Eric, }
- 1514 Heinrich IV., son of Heinrich II.
- 1568 Julius, son.
- 1589 Heinrich Julius, son.
- 1613 Frederic Ulrich, son. Died without issue.

SECOND BRANCH.

- 1634 Augustus, son of Heinrich of Luneburg.
 1666 Rodolf Augustus and Anthony Ulric.
 1704 Anthony Ulric alone.
 1714 Augustus Wilhelm, son.
 1731 Ludwig Rodolf, brother.
 1735 Ferdinand Albrecht, Duke of Brunswick-Bevern.
 1735 Charles, son.
 1780 Charles Wilhelm Ferdinand, son. Great general. Married Princess Augusta of England.
 1806 Wilhelm Frederic, fourth son (the three elder brothers being blind). During Napoleon's reign Brunswick was incorporated with the kingdom of Westphalia. After the battle of Leipsic, Wilhelm Frederic recovered possession of Brunswick, 1813.
 1815 Charles Frederic Wilhelm, son. Retired to England.
 1830. Wilhelm, brother. Provisionally. 1831, definitely.
 1884-5 Placed under the Regency of Prince Albrecht of Prussia.

ANHALT DUCHY.

- Claims descent from Berenthobaldus, in the sixth century.
 In 1606 the principality divided between four sons of Joachim Ernest.
 Anhalt-Dessau.
 Zerbst. Extinct 1793.
 Potsgau or Coethen. Extinct 1847.
 Bernburg. Extinct 1863.
 1809 The Princes of Anhalt became dukes.
 1817 Leopold, Duke of Anhalt-Dessau and Anhalt-Bernburg.
 1871 Frederic, Duke of Anhalt.

PRINCIPALITIES.

SCHWARTZBURG.

- This house dates back to the twelfth century.
 1349 Count Gunther. Elected as Emperor by one party in Germany.
 From the sons of Gunther are descended the present rulers.

SCHWARTZBURG-RUDOLSTADT.

(Made a principality, 1697.)

- 1807 Albert.
 1869 George.
 Gunther.

SCHWARTZBURG-SONDERSHAUSEN.

(Made a principality, 1710.)

- 1835 Gunther.
 18 Charles.

WALDECK AND PYRMON.

- The late reigning family claim descent from the Saxon hero Witekind, 772. The united principalities were established in 1682.
 1845 Prince George Victor. Abdicated, 1867.
 1867-8 Administration transferred to Prussia under Prince George.

REUSS.

Two united principalities. Raised by Emperor Sigismund, 1426.
The reigning family sprang from Ekbert, Count of Osterode,
tenth century.

REUSS-GREITZ.

REUSS-SCHLEITZ.

1859 Heinrich XXII.

1867 Heinrich XIV.

SCHAUMBURG-LIPPE.

1033 Made a county by Adolphus of Sondersleben.

1040 Otho IV. (Count). Died, and his mother, Elizabeth, gave the
domains to Philip of Lippe, the ancestor of the reigning princes.
(Titles assumed, 1807.)

1860 Adolphus.

LIPPE-DETMOLD. (Constitutional principality.)

1851 Leopold.

Waldemar.

SCHLESWIG AND HOLSTEIN.

COUNTS AND DUKES.

Duchies once belonging to Denmark.

Inhabitants were Saxons. Subdued by Charlemagne.

1106 or 1110 Adolphus of Schauenberg became count. His de-
scendants ruled till 1459, when Adolphus VII. died without
issue.

1459 Christian, King of Denmark (nephew of Adolphus VII.), elected
as duke by Holstein and Schleswig.

1544 Christian II. Grandson. Divided his estates amongst his
brothers on condition that they remained subject to Denmark.

THE ELDER BRANCH.

THE YOUNGER BRANCH.

Reigned in Denmark until the
death of Frederic VII.,
1863.

"Holstein-Gottorp."

From whom descended through
marriage the

1751-1818 Kings of Sweden.

1762-1896 Czars of Russia. Peter III. (Son
of Duke Charles Frederic and Anne of
Russia.) His wife was the great
Catherine II.

1773 Catherine II. of Russia ceded Holstein-
Gottorp to Denmark in exchange
for Oldenburg.

1866 Schleswig and Holstein ceded to Prussia.

LITHUANIA.

Formerly a grand duchy in N.E. Prussia. The natives (Sclavonians) long maintained their independence against the Russians and Poles. In 1386 their grand duke Jagellon became King of Poland, and was baptized.

- 1501 Lithuania incorporated with Poland, when Duke Casimir became king.
 1569 Lithuania united to Prussia.
 The larger part of Lithuania now belongs to Russia, the remainder to Prussia.

AUSTRIA.

Fifth and sixth centuries overrun by Huns and Avars.

- 791-796 Charlemagne conquered Austria and established Margraves.
 817 Louis the German, son of Louis le Débonnaire, subdued Radbod, Margrave of Austria.
 883 The descendants of Radbod made war against Charles le Gros, but after that time the Margraves were princes of the Empire.

MARGRAVES.

- | | |
|------------------|--|
| 928 Leopold I | 1096 Leopold III. |
| 1018 Albert I. | 1136 Albert II. |
| 1056 Ernest. | 1136 Leopold IV. |
| 1075 Leopold II. | 1142 Heinrich II. Made a duke in 1156. |

DUKES (House of Babenberg).

- 1156 Heinrich II.
 1177 Leopold V. (I. duke). Made Richard Cœur de Lion prisoner, but gave him up to Emperor Heinrich VI. Died 1194.
 1194 Frederic I. the Catholic.
 1198 Leopold VI. (II. duke) the Glorious.
 1230 Frederic II. the Warlike. Killed in battle with the Hungarians, 1246.

INTERREGNUM, 1246-1276 (House of Hapsburg).

- 1276 Rodolf I. of Hapsburg. (Emp.) He recovered the Austrian dukedom from Ottocar II. of Bohemia on the field of Marzfeld, and gave it to his son Albrecht.
 1282 Albrecht I. and his brother Rodolf II. Albrecht became Emperor of Germany 1298.
 1308 Frederic III. (I. Duke of Hapsburg House) and Leopold I. (first Leopold of Hapsburg), the so-called Emperor of Germany, rival of Frederic III. of Morgarten.
 1326 Frederic III. alone.
 1330 Albrecht II. and Otto his brother.
 1339 Albrecht II. alone.
 1358 Rodolf IV.

- 1365 Albrecht III. and Leopold II. or III. Killed at Sempach.
 1395 Wilhelm I. and brothers, and cousin Albrecht IV.
 1411 The provinces divided into Duchies of Austria and Carinthia and County of Tyrol.
 1411 Albrecht V. Obtains Bohemia and Moravia; King of Hungary and Emperor, 1437.
 1439 Ladislas. Dies childless.
 1457 Emperor Frederic III. and Albrecht VI.
 1493 Emperor Maximilian I. Son of Frederic III.

EMPERORS OF AUSTRO-HUNGARY.

- 1804 Francis I. (late Francis II. of Germany). Resigned Germany, 1806.
 1835 Ferdinand. Son. Abdicated in favor of his nephew (his brother Francis Charles having renounced his rights).
 1848 Francis Joseph I. Son of Francis Charles.

BOHEMIA.

CZECHS. SCLAVONIANS.

- { Bohemia was governed by
 { dukes, of whom the first
 { was Borzivoi in 891.

KINGS.

- 1157 Ladislas, made king by
 Fred. Barbarossa. Married
 Margaret, daughter of Duke
 Frederic of Austria.

HUNGARY (KINGS).

ARPAD DYNASTY OF FINNISH
ORIGIN.

A.D.

- 997 St. Stephen, Duke of Hun-
 gary, son of Geisa, estab-
 lished Christianity, sub-
 dued the Slavs, and re-
 ceived the title of Apostolic
 King from the Pope.
 1038 { Peter the German. De-
 posed.
 1041 { Aba, or Owen.
 1044 { Peter again deposed, and
 his eyes put out.
 1047 Andrew I. Deposed.
 1061 Bela I. Killed by fall of a
 tower.
 1064 Salamon. Son of Andrew
 I.
 1075 Geisa I. Son of Bela.
 1077 Ladislas I. the Pious.
 1095 Coloman. Son of Geisa.
 1114 Stephen II. (Thunder.)
 1131 Bela II. Had his eyes
 put out.
 1141 Geisa II.
 1161 Stephen III. and Stephen
 IV. Anarchy. Ladislas,
 son of Bela, crowned but
 not counted.
 1173 Bela III.

BOHEMIA.

- 1198 Premislas Ottocar I.
- 1230 Wenceslas III. (I. king).
1253 Premislas Ottocar II.,
rules over Austria and
Styria. Refuses imperial
crown. Vanquished by
Rodolf, Emperor, and
deprived of Bohemia,
Styria, and Carinthia.¹
Slain at Marzfeld.
- 1278 Wenceslas IV. (II. king).
1305 Wenceslas V. (III. king).
1306 Rodolf of Austria.
1307 Heinrich of Carinthia.
1310 John of Luxemburg: blind.
Son of Heinrich VII.
Emperor. Married Elizabeth,
daughter and heiress of Wenceslas V.
(or III.). Killed at
Crecy.
- 1346 Charles. Son. Emperor
Charles IV., 1347.
- 1378 Wenceslas VI. (IV. king).
The Drunkard. Emperor.
- 1419 Sigismund. Brother. Emperor,
1410. Married
Mary of Hungary.
- 1438 Albrecht of Austria. Son-
in-law. Emperor.
- 1440 Ladislas (V. of Poland, IV.
of Hungary).

HUNGARY.

- 1196 Emeric (Heinrich). Son.
1204 Ladislas II. Reigned six
months.
- 1205 Andrew II. Son of Bela
III.
- 1235 Bela IV.
1270 Stephen IV. (or V.). Son.
1272 Ladislas III. Killed.
- 1290 Andrew III. the Venetian.
Son-in-law of Rodolf of
Hapsburg, Emperor of
Germany. Defeated
Charles Martel, 1292.
- END OF ARPAD DYNASTY.
- 1301 Wenceslas of Bohemia.
1305 Otto of Bavaria.
1309 Charibert (Charles of An-
jou).
- 1342 Ludwig I. (Louis) the
Great. King of Poland,
1370. His brother An-
drea married Juana of
Naples and was mur-
dered, 1345.
- 1382 Mary, king (daughter).
Married Sigismund,
King of Bohemia, 1419,
and Emperor, 1410.
Charles Durazzo, cousin of
Juana of Naples, claimed
the crown. He was as-
sassinated, 1386.
- 1437 Albrecht, Duke of Austria.
Married Elizabeth,
daughter of Sigismund.
Obtains the thrones of
Hungary and Bohemia,
and Germany, and died
suddenly.
- 1439 Elizabeth, widow. She }
marries
1440 Ladislas IV. (V. of Po- }
land). Slain at Varna. }
- 1444 Interregnum.
1445 John Hunniades. Re-
gent.

¹ N.B.—Carinthia, a Bavarian duchy, annexed to Austria, 1336.

BOHEMIA.

- 1458 George von Podiebrad.
Father-in-law of Mat-
thias Corvinus.
- 1471 Ladislav (VI. of Poland
and V. of Hungary, 1490).
- 1516 Ludwig I. King of Hun-
gary. Slain at Mohatz.

HUNGARY.

- 1458 { Ladislav V. Poisoned.
Matthias Corvinus, son
of John Hunniades.
Married daughter of
G. Podiebrad.
- 1490 Ladislav VI. King of Bo-
hemia. The Emperor
Maximilian claims both
kingdoms.
- 1516 Ludwig II. (I. of Bohe-
mia). Slain at Mohatz.

BOHEMIA AND HUNGARY UNITED.

- 1526 The Emperor Ferdinand I. Brother of Charles V. Married
Anne, sister of Ludwig II.
John Zapolski, Waivode of Transylvania, elected by the Hun-
garians, and supported by the Sultan, Solyman the Magnifi-
cent. By treaty with Ferdinand I. he founds the principality
of Transylvania.

Ferdinand elected Emperor in 1558.

N.B.—From the time of Ferdinand I. Bohemia and Hungary were
united to Germany till the separation under Francis II. in 1806. (See
Austria.)

AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE.

(CONTINUATION OF BOHEMIA AND HUNGARY.)

- 1806 Francis I. Emperor of Austria. (Francis II. of Germany.)
- 1835 Ferdinand. Son. Abdicated in favor of his nephew, his brother
Francis Charles having given up his rights.
- 1848 Francis Joseph. Son of Francis Charles.

NOTES.

ELECTORS OF GERMANY.

- 912-918 In the reign of Conrad I., King of Germany, the dukes and counts, from being merely officers, became gradually independent of the sovereign, and subsequently elected him.
- 919 They confirmed the nomination of Henry I., Duke of Saxony, by Conrad as his successor.
In the thirteenth century seven princes assumed the exclusive privilege of nominating the emperor.
The Archbishop of Mainz (Mayence).
The Archbishop of Trier (Trèves).
The Archbishop of Köln (Cologne).
The King of Bohemia.
The Elector of Brandenburg.
The Elector of Saxony.
The Elector Palatine.
- 1648 The Elector of Bavaria was added to the number.
- 1692 The Elector of Hanover was added to the number.
- 1777 The Elector Palatine acquired Bavaria, so the number was reduced to eight; but at the peace of Lunéville it
- 1801 was increased to ten. Köln and Trier were set aside, and Baden, Würtemberg, Hesse-Cassel, and Salzburg declared electorates.

THE RHINE.

A Central Committee for the navigation of the Rhine exists, formed by members for Alsace, Lorraine, Baden, Bavaria, Hesse, Holland, and Prussia.

SWABIA.

A province of South Germany.

- 496 Conquered by Clovis, and incorporated into the kingdom of the Franks.
 912 Made a duchy by Conrad I.
 1080 Hereditary in the House of Hohenstaufen.
 1152 Duke Frederic III. became Emperor Frederic I. Barbarossa.
 1268 Conradino, the last of his descendants, beheaded after Tagliacozzo.
 (The Swabian League in 1254 was the beginning of the great Swabian League under the Emperor Frederic III., 1488.)
 1512-1806 Swabia counted as a circle of the Empire.

CIRCLES OF GERMANY.

Formed by Maximilian I. about 1500 to distinguish the members of the Diet of the Empire.

- 1500 Franconia, Bavaria, Upper Rhine, Swabia, Westphalia, Lower Saxony.
 1512 Austria, Burgundy, Lower Rhine, the Palatinate, Upper Saxony, and Brandenburg were added
 1806 Annulled when Napoleon Buonaparte formed the "Confederation of the Rhine".

CONDITION OF GERMANY.

The present area of Germany extends from beyond the Rhine to beyond the Vistula; or from Aix-la-Chapelle (Aachen) and Metz in Alsace-Lorraine to near Cracow and to Memel on the Russian frontier. It is bordered on the south by Switzerland and Austria, from which its rivers, the Elbe, Rhine, Oder, etc., run through Middle Germany, and the great sandy plain of North Germany to the North and Baltic Seas. Area.

Germany is governed under the Emperor by a Reichsrath of fifty-eight delegates from the respective states (seventeen for Prussia); and a Reichstag or Imperial Parliament of 382 members elected by ballot. Government.

The revenues are chiefly derived from salt, tobacco, spirits, customs, post, and telegraphs. Revenues.

Seventy-eight gun-ships, thirty-three being ironclad, of which fourteen are first class, and further immediate additions are contemplated. These do not include cruisers, torpedoes, etc. Imperial Navy.

Army. 511,885 in peace, and probably 3,000,000 in war. Both navy and army are under the Emperor as General-in-chief: but the kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg retain the separate command of their own armies in peace.

Universities. Prussia has ten universities and ninety-two state academies, Bavaria has three universities, Würtemberg has one, at Tübingen.

Leading States, Population. Prussia, 30 millions; Bavaria $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions; Saxony, $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions; Würtemberg, 2 millions; Baden, $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions; or a total of 41 millions; leaving about $8\frac{1}{2}$ millions for the other twenty-one small states, dispersed chiefly in central and north-west Germany. The total figures include $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions for Alsace-Lorraine.

GERMAN LITERATURE.

The German language has two great branches, "*hoch*" and "*platt*" *Deutsch*, high and low German.

The former became the literary language principally through its use by Luther in his translation of the Bible, 1522-34.

The latter is spoken by the lower classes. There are many dialects.

Formation of legendary Sagas (prose epics) of Burgundians, Franks, Goths, and Huns.

Earliest
Period till
Charle-
magne.
9th and
10th
Centuries.

Influence of Christianity in literature. Legendary Bible history by monks. Metrical translations of Evangelists. Also "*Ludwigslied*," "*Hildebrandlied*," "*Merseburger Gedichte*," songs of heroism and enchantment.

First great period of literature of chivalry and knighthood. "*Minnesinger*," *Parzival*, *Lohengr n*, and lays of Charlemagne by Von Eschenbach, Gottfried, Von Strasburg, Von Aue, etc. From these are taken Wagner's celebrated operas. Two great national epics, the "*Nibelungenlied*" and "*Saga of Gudrun*," composed from old German legends.

11th and
12th
Centuries.

Poetry in the hands of the "*Meistersinger*"

"*Reineke Fuchs*" (or *Vos*), *Reynard the Fox*, a low satirical epic in low German in which beasts are actors. Caxton translated it into English, 1481; Goethe into high German, 1794; T. J. Arnold into English, 1855. Great writers of the Reformation. Luther's translation of the Bible. Works by Ulrich von H tten, Murner, Hans Sachs, etc. Hymns and religious lyrics. The autobiography of G tz von Berlichingen.

13th to
15th
Centuries.
15th and
16th
Centuries.

Period of imitation of French and English literature. Paul Gerhard's hymns.

The remodelling of German poetry. Classical period usually reckoned from 1748. Spiritual revival under Klopstock. Critical school under Herder and Lessing. Works on sculpture and art.

17th
Century.
18th
Century.

"*Sturm-und-Drang*" (storm and stress) period, 1770-1785.

Goethe and Schiller brought literature to classical perfection. Great advance in theological and historical works. Romantic school, and love of mystic and transcendental thought and philosophy. Fine translators, such as Schlegel, Tieck, etc.

Early 19th
Century.

A FEW OF THE GREAT MEN OF GERMANY.

Writers of Reformation.	Desiderius (Gerhard) Erasmus, Martin Luther, Melancthon, Ulrich von Hütten Murner.
Poetry.	Hans Sachs, Gellert, Lessing, Bürger, Herder, Klopstock, Wieland, Körner, Voss, Goethe, Schiller, Heine, Arndt, Uhland, Bodenstedt, Von Wildenbruck, Fitger, Blumenthal, L'Arronge, Von Schönthan, Lubliner, Von Moser, Anzengruber, Von Scheffel, Hartmann, Geibel, Rückert.
Philosophy.	Leibnitz, Kant, Hegel, Schopenhauer, Kuno Fischer.
Philology.	Baehr, W. von Humboldt, Müller, Grimms (2).
Translation.	Schlegels (2), Tieck.
Natural History and Science.	Gesner, A. von Humboldt, Cotta, Liebig, Helmholtz.
Metaphysics.	Von Schelling, Von Hartmann, Carriere.
History.	Niebuhr, Bunsen, Schlosser, Gervinus, Mommsen, Von Ranke, Dahlmann.
Geology.	Zirkel of Leipsic, Rosenbusch of Heidelberg.
Geography.	Von Richtofen of Berlin.
Biography.	Varnhagen, Von Euse, Pertz, Strauss.
Art criticism.	Kugler, Burckhardt, Lübke.
Statistics.	Engel, Laspeyres, Grotefend.
Jurisprudence.	Windscheit of Leipsic, Gneist of Berlin, Von Haltzendorf of Munich.
gery.	Laugenbech of Berlin, Billroth of Vienna, Nussbaum of Munich, Scanzoni of Würzburg, Esmarch of Kiel.
Scientific discovery.	Haeckel of Jena, scientific speculation; Bunsen and Kirchhoff, the spectroscope; Czermak, the laryngoscope; Helmholtz, the ophthalmoscope, and valuable laws of acoustics; Koch, scientific discoveries in medicine; Virchow, anthropologist and physiologist.
Statesmen, Soldiers.	Scharnhorst, Von Stein, Blücher, Gneisenau, Emperor William I., Von Bismarck, Von Roon, Von Moltke.
Light Narrative and Fiction.	Paul Lindau, Gustav Freytag, Spielhagen, Paul Heyse, Ebers, Ossip Schubin, Dahn, Auerbach, Fritz Reuter, Wolff, Häckländer, Keller, Gotthelf, Marlitt, Lewald, Werner, Wildemuth, Von François, Carmen Sylva.
Music.	Beethoven, Schubert, Weber, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Herz, Wagner, Von Bülow, Raff Abt, Kücken, Rubenstein, Moscheles, Liszt, Czerny, Heller, Hummel, Spindler, Hiller, Schulhoff, Franz, Jadassohn, Reinecke, Brahms, Barziel, Bruch, Becker, Kichner, Kiel, Herzogenberg, Drasecke, Nicodé, Vierling, Geruseheim, Hofmann, Strauss, Bungert, Moszkowski.
Architecture.	Von Steinbach (built dome of Strasburg), Von Riel (built dome of Köln), Schinkel, Stüler, Strack, Klenze, Von Gärtner, Neureuther, Semper, Hansen, Ferstel, Schmidt.

Krafft, Jörg Syrlin, Veit Stosz, Peter Fischer, Schlüter, Donner, Sculpture. Dannecker, Thorwaldsen, Schadow, Rauch, Rietschel, Drake, Schwanthaler.

Schongauer, Wolgemut, Grünewald, Albrecht Dürer, Burck- Painting. mair, Behams (2), Cranachs (2), Holbeins (2), Hals, Angelica Kauffmann, Dietrich, Overbeck, Kneller, Cornelius, Schnorr, Kaulbach, Lessing, Schadow, Stilke, Steinbrück, Schröter, Hübne, Jordan, Magnus, Menzel, Angely, Funk, Makart, Piloty, Defregger, Werner.

NECROLOGY (1873-1903).

- 1873 April 18.—Baron von Liebig, founder of organic chemistry.
 1878 December 14.—Princess Alice of Hesse-Darmstadt, daughter of Queen Victoria.
 1883 February 13.—Richard Wagner, the most original composer of opera of the nineteenth century.
 1886 May 23.—Leopold von Ranke, one of Germany's greatest historians.
 July 21.—Karl von Piloty, the famous artist.
 July 31.—Franz Liszt, greatest of pianists.
 1890 January 11.—Dowager Empress Augusta.
 December 27.—Heinrich Schliemann, the archæologist.
 1891 April 24.—Field Marshal Hellmuth von Moltke.
 September 8.—Hermann Helmholtz, the distinguished scientist, inventor of the ophthalmoscope.
 1898 July 30.—Baron Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen.
 1900 August 25.—Friedrich Wilhelm Nietzsche, the most brilliant German philosopher since Schopenhauer.
 1901 July 5.—Prince von Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst.
 August 5.—Dowager Empress Friedrich.
 November 22.—Friedrich Krupp, head of the great iron works at Essen.
 1902 September 6.—Professor Rudolph Virchow, of the University of Berlin.
 December 2.—Field Marshal Count von Blumenthal.

SOME INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES.

Water-marks are produced by a wire bent into the shape of the required letter or device, and sewed to the surface of the mould; it has the effect of making the paper thinner in those places. Earliest water-mark is a wide circle with a cross on it, 1301. P and Y are the initials of Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, and Isabella his wife. Other symbols are the unicorn, anchor, fleur-de-lys, which are seen on foolscap paper; the post-man's horn means the post paper, 1370. Water-marks.

- Stables.** Stables under houses were universal in the middle ages, and to enter the house people had to ascend steps.
- Singing.** School singing was introduced by Luther.
- Wigs.** Powdered wigs and patches were fashionable in the eighteenth century.
- Patches.** Moustaches also came in at this time. When the Duchess of Gonzaga (niece of Louis XIV.) was shown the picture of her future husband, Ladislas, King of Poland, she cried, "But he is deformed; he has two rats' tails on his upper lip".
- Moustaches.**
- Rococo.** Rococo comes from "roche," and "coquille" from the architectural decorations of the time.
- Theatrical statues.** Theatrical statues were introduced in the fifteenth century. They were covered over with tinfoil, and washed over with color to represent life and prevent their being spoiled.
- Post-office.** The post office was introduced into Germany in the reign of Maximilian I., 1516. First post went from Vienna to Brussels, under the conduct of the Count of Thurn and Taxis, whose successors later on received the title of "imperial postmaster," and held it till the year 1866.
- Printing.** Printing is said to have been used by the Chinese many years before the Christian era. Printing in Germany originated with picture blocks used by Koster of Haarlem, 1438. John Gutenberg invented movable types, 1450, but being too poor to cast them, he had recourse to Peter Schöffer, a copyist, and Fust (or Faust) of Mainz, a goldsmith. They treated Gutenberg badly, turned him out of their partnership, and became wealthy on the produce of Gutenberg's invention, which by its rapidity of producing books appeared to be the work of the Evil One, and gave rise to the well-known story of Faust.
- Latin Bible.** The *earliest edition of the Latin Bible* was begun by Gutenberg in 1450.
- Glass windows.** *Glass windows* were introduced into Germany at the end of the fourteenth century. In the town hall at Zürich in 1402 the windows were still filled with oiled linen.
- Paving-stones.** Paving-stones came in for use on streets in the fifteenth century.
- Chimneys.** Chimneys came in at the end of the fourteenth century.
- Wooden buildings.** *Wooden buildings* were almost universal until the end of the fourteenth century. Stone before that time was only used for castles and walls.
- Fountains.** The first fountain was built at Zürich in 1450.
- Fire brigades.** A fire brigade was established at Frankfort in 1439. The first fire engine was at Augsburg in 1518.
- Nürnberg is the most perfect specimen of a mediæval town.

LIFE IN GERMANY DURING THE REFORMATION.

Jesuits and Capuchins.—Directly after the Reformation Rome strove with all her might to recover her lost power, and her chief instruments in this work were the orders of Jesuits and Capuchins. Their idea was to educate the rising generations, and

imbue them with the old doctrines, but in Germany their influence was comparatively slight.

The Reformed Clergy were split up into many divisions, the interests of the Lutherans and Calvinists being greatly opposed to each other. The mass of the people still clung to Luther's translation of the Bible.

Courts of Law.—Up to this time there existed a secret tribunal called "*Vehmgericht*," which was very powerful. It was founded by Engelbert, Archbishop of Cologne, and in the fourteenth century numbered 100,000 members. If it passed sentence of death, the victim was found dead with a dagger marked S.S.G.G. (stick, stone, grass, groan) sticking in his heart. This fell into disuse in the sixteenth century, but secrecy was still necessary to protect the judges from any attempt at revenge. Gradually the German law was so despised that the old Roman law, which had never quite died out, became general.

Torture or Punishment.—This system prevailed to a terrible extent, and every town had instruments for the practice of various and ingenious tortures. Clergy used to be hung up in iron cages, and left to starve, since it was illegal for a layman to bring a priest to justice.

Soldiers and Arms.—The invention of gunpowder had a great effect upon the art of war in Germany, as in other countries. Gustavus Adolphus replaced the heavy arquebus by the musket, and was the first to use light artillery. He made great use of dragoons without armor, and carrying carabines.

The Burghers.—In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the cities, which were united by the Hanseatic League, became very powerful, but they began to decline during the Reformation, and were nearly destroyed in the Thirty Years' War, when the spirit of government became more aristocratic. Bremen, Lübeck, and Hamburg were the only towns which remained free. The German burghers had grown luxurious, and so had allowed the more enterprising English and Dutch to draw away their commerce.

Houses.—There still remain in the older quarters of German cities specimens of the tall, narrow, gloomy houses, built in the time of the Reformation (ex. Nuremberg). But many changes for the better were made at this time. The rich citizens built schools, libraries, and hospitals for the use of the poor, and in every city there was a Jews' quarter, into which they were locked at dusk.

The Peasantry in Eastern Germany were in a very different position to those of the West. Though they had not so much personal freedom, yet they were much less heavily taxed. In the western states every change in a peasant's family, such as a birth, marriage, or death, had its heavy tax which must be paid. His labor also, and that of his dependents, had to be at his lord's disposal at certain seasons. The rent from the earliest times was paid in kind.

The Universities.—Before the Reformation nearly all the universities were under the rule of the Franciscans and Dominicans, and later on of the Jesuits. After that time, however, those of the reformed religion were placed at first in the hands of Protestant clergy, and afterwards of the lawyers and counsellors. The professors were paid by the State. Classical studies were encouraged as giving a key to the right interpretation of the Bible, and as a natural result many eminent critics and grammarians arose.

Alchemy and Witchcraft.—The knowledge of these arts was spread by "The Society of Rosicrucians," founded in Swabia by Valentin Andrea, and was believed in to an absurd degree. Astrology and palmistry afforded a most profitable trade. The "elixir of life" and the "philosopher's stone" or "road to wealth" were eagerly sought for. A Dominican monk named Sprenger obtained a papal bull against witchcraft, and declared with pride that he had burned 100 old women.

The Arts.—The best poems after the Reformation are satires, but towards the close of the sixteenth century these grew very coarse. The drama of the day was greatly affected by religion and politics, and one of the most noted writers was Luther's friend Hans Sachs, the cobbler of Nuremberg. In 1628 the first German opera, "Daphne," was composed by Schutz. In the sixteenth century the German school of painting was formed, the chief masters being Hans Holbein and Albrecht Durer. The art of engraving was much improved at this time, but that of architecture declined. A great advance was made in music, especially sacred music.

KNIGHTHOOD.

Infantry.

The German armies of old time were almost entirely composed of infantry; the few riders were equipped in armor, and carried lance and sword. As their faces were covered with a vizor all looked alike. To distinguish them, each bore on shield and helmet a device—such as a bear, lion, or cock—with colored bands on the helmet or arm. Sons bore the device of their fathers, and thus began "family coats of arms". To know and remember all these different blazonings became a science professed by men called heralds. Such marks of honor were used in early ages. The Phrygians had a sow; the Thracians, Mars; the Romans, an eagle; the Goths, a bear; the Flemings, a bull; the Saxons, a horse; the ancient French, a lion, and afterwards the fleur-de-lys, adopted by Clovis as a heaven-sent flower on his vow to become a Christian at the battle of Köln, 496.

Heraldry
by Charle-
magne,
800.
Coats of
Arms.

In the wild invasions of the Huns, the Germans had to encounter horsemen, and to do this successfully they increased the number of riders, so that the principal part of the German army became cavalry. The accoutrements were very costly, but all who could by any means afford it endeavored to become riders

Cavalry.

At the first all riders were knights (Ritter), but it is to Heinrich the Fowler that we owe the institution of the Order of Knighthood, whose arms were blessed with a solemn service of consecration after a certain period of probation.

The knights called themselves by the name of the estate to which they belonged—*e.g.*, if the estate were called "Bülow," the knight would be "von Bülow". The sons of the knights were generally brought up to their father's profession. As early as seven years old, a boy would be placed with some knight of renown to serve him as a squire; and during the years of service he was exercised in all manly sports, and learnt the various kinds of work considered necessary to fit him for his future career, which included—amongst many things—waiting on his lord at table, and polishing his armor, etc.

Later on *sacred* orders of knighthood were instituted.

CRUSADES.

I. 1095-9. Preached by Peter the Hermit. Ended by the Christians taking Jerusalem and making Godfrey de Bouillon king.

II. 1146. Preached by St. Bernard. Headed by Emperor Conrad III. and Louis VII. of France. Crusaders defeated. Jerusalem lost, 1187, to Saladin.

III. 1188. Emperor Frederic Barbarossa, etc., joined by Philippe II. (Auguste) of France and Richard I. of England in 1190. Glorious but fruitless war against Saladin, "Salah-ed-Din," Saracen Soldan of Egypt and Syria.

IV. 1195. Emperor Heinrich VI. successful till his death in 1197.

V. 1198. Proclaimed by Innocent III. Baldwin, Count of Flanders, attacked the Greeks and took Constantinople in 1203.

VI. 1216. In 1229 Emperor Frederic II. obtained possession of Jerusalem on a truce for ten years. In 1240 Richard, Earl of Cornwall, arrived in Palestine, but soon departed.

VII. 1248. Louis IX. (Saint) was defeated and taken prisoner at Mansourah, 1250. Released by ransom. Truce of ten years.

VIII. 1270. St. Louis (IX.) died of a contagious illness at Carthage in Africa. Prince Edward (Edward I.) of England was at Acre, 1271. In 1291 the Saracen Soldan took Acre and drove the Christians out of Syria.

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